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ABSTRACT

In 1970, the U.S. Office of Education, through the Bureau of Educational Personnel Development, initiated a program promoting community-school collaboration, which was called the Urban/Rural School Development Program. Designed to train educational personnel at a small number of schools in low-income communities characterized by student underachievement, it is now active at 26 sites. The purpose of this effort was to demonstrate that federal funds could strengthen the educational resources of the total school community through a joint effort between the school staff and the community. This paper is a descriptive and evaluative report of the first three years of the program. It describes the factors involved in developing the organizational structures needed for community-school collaboration, the variety of patterns that emerged at the sites, and the degree of effectiveness achieved. Chapter two gives a design for the survey and presents a general overview of the sites. The next chapter deals with representation and parity in the school/community councils, while chapter four discusses community involvement. Teacher training activities related to the program are discussed in chapter five. It was concluded that parity in community involvement between the school and its community is a viable and effective possibility. The installation of urban/rural programs did restructure the relationship between the community and the school. The participation of community members had a definite effect on the nature of the training programs developed locally. The School/Community Council has become a workable administrative unit. This program seems to allow community members to have a channel to develop community education and participation. Appendices give data on participating schools, present the survey questionnaires, and give personal profiles on the council chairpersons and school development team managers. (SK)

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THE URBAN/RURAL SCHOOL DEVELOPMENT PROGRAM: AN EXAMINATION OF A FEDERAL MODEL FOR ACHIEVING PARITY BETWEEN SCHOOLS AND COMMUNITIES

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January 1975

U S DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION

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This study was made possible by the assistance of the hundreds of people who have worked at the Urban/Rural sites to make this program a viable example of school-community cooperation. The authors wish to especially acknowledge the generous contribution made by School/Community Council members and staff, both for the kindnesses they extended during the site visit and the many hours of often tedious work that they put into the collection of local program data.

The authors were fortunate in being associated with a support staff of great competence and good humor. We are indebted to Debbie Younggren, Louise Manning, June Marr, and Pascal Forgione, who contributions were exceeded only by their patience.

Foreword

In the late 1960's the National Center for Educational Statistics published data that accurately forecast the end of the baby boom population entrance into elementary public schools and the beginning of an acute imbalance in the supply and demand of teachers. For the first time in two decades the general supply of certified teachers in the United States exceeded the demand. Ironically enough, this imbalance did not arise only from the simple fact of fewer children in the public schools. It was aggravated by the severe financial crisis the schools faced in meeting the inflating costs of goods and services, spiralling school personnel salaries and voter rejection of bond issues and levies. These phenomena required a major reexamination of public policy, university policy, and school policy, particularly with regard to the recruitment, selection, training and hiring of new teachers into an already overcrowded market. This was clearly a quantitative crisis.

At the same time a great deal more data had been generated showing (1) the effects on society and schooling from technology and the knowledge explosion, (2) new behaviors and attitudes displayed by students, parents and the general citizenry in the emergent societal and cultural context, (3) teachers already hired and working in the schools felt inadequately prepared to cope with existing requirements for transmitting the cultural heritage, (4) court litigations (Lau vs. Nichols and Right to Education) were being started, and (5) new skills are required to prepare young people to live in a post-industrial society and cope with the forecast open learning system of the year 2000 and beyond. Clearly, these qualitative issues required immediate deliberation and response. This was supported by the fact that the Mort studies of the 1950's and the Brickell studies of the 1960's had indicated that four or five decades would be required before major educational innovations and changes would be diffused throughout the entire ongoing education systems.

The Federal Government raised many questions in examining this critical issue. The first of these was "Where are the most acute problems facing the teacher today in the real world of teaching kids and running schools?" Further questions dealt with strategies needed to cope with these problems. "What strategies are the most effective?" "What resources are available for the achievement of these strategies?" How should these resources be allocated?"

While the answers to these vital questions seemed self-evident, time, manpower, and energy were used to study and verify both the issues and answers. The major decision, of course, was to deal with the qualitative issues first. A second was to recognize that while the qualitative problem existed throughout the United States, the greatest priority was to focus on areas with high concentration of children from low income families. Data showed that as problems in the United States increased arithmetically, problems in poverty areas increased geometrically.

By 1970, three conditions related to the use of limited resource allocation for inservice education at the Federal level: (1) a number of local education agencies (school systems) had appropriated sums from their general operating budget for inservice training of their teachers, (2) the U.S. Congress in the major Elementary and Secondary Education Act programs (Title I, Title III, Titles VII and VIII) authorized some expenditures for inservice training, and (3) the nine million dollars allocated from the Bureau of Educational Personnel Development for the Urban and Rural School Development Program (URSDP) could not meet all of the inservice needs of teachers in poverty areas, let alone the inservice needs throughout the country. These considerations were the basis for the formulation of a demonstration strategy at the national level, by then Associate Commissioner Dr. Don Davies. Once field tested and validated, this demonstration could be made available to other school districts. Most districts had either their own operating budget resources or resources from Federal Elementary and Secondary Education Act program funds, which could be used for the purpose of installing the processes and products derived from this inservice demonstration effort.

The extensive study of the problem led to two basic realities, which became the underlying assumptions for this demonstration effort. First, change is a slow process. Diffusion of change from one institution to another is a function of the acceptance and credibility of both the practices and products developed, and of the institutions involved. Therefore, an institution must have a time span long enough for it to develop and demonstrate its inservice education programming. It must also have the wherewithal to compile and share the documentation of these practices and products as an education institution with credibility. Programs dealing with the critical problems faced by teachers and pupils in poverty schools must focus on the schools and the staffs, as they exist. In addition, they must have a five year funding commitment after the planning year to ensure continuity of purpose and to provide the time needed to develop and orchestrate the basic or modified designs generated from the complex endeavor of bringing about change.

The second reality was that schools are social systems--formal organizations. Therefore, systems theory and organizational behavior theory must be used in the conceptualization of the demonstration program. The basic assumption was that good and talented teachers in those schools saw themselves unable to work effectively because of constraints imposed upon them by the hierarchial structure, administrators and/or supervisors, and by that significant environmental field force--the community. Both findings indicated that a sense of alienation and a sense of powerlessness had to be overcome. It was concluded that if schools are to be changed for the better, as organizations and social systems, all who had a role or an investment in the education of kids must be involved in the change process, in roles of equality to whatever extent possible. Hence, the term "parity" was defined as the deliberate, mutual collaborative planning and decision-making on the part of those giving the service as well as those receiving the service. To operationalize the parity concept was the major problem.

That the Urban and Rural School Development Program was a bold and innovative step forward in inservice educational personnel development is unquestioned. It involved parity. The data published in this first-phase report clearly attest to it. When data from the second-phase Urban and Rural School Development Program training activities which focus on the substance and content of teacher retraining are reported next year, they will reinforce this finding.

Of key importance in this very progressive venture was the deliberate and calculated commitments to risks Don Davies and his planning staff took in implementing this unique training design. In 1970, Davies put together a task force from his immediate staff. Dr. John Lindia, his Special Assistant, chaired it. For more than a year this educator task force searched the literature and observed schools and communities throughout the nation for valuable evidence to formulate program policy and program implementation strategies. These data were then turned over to the program operations staff in the Division of School Programs within the Bureau of Educational Personnel Development. The program operations group was asked to test the policy task force's underlying assumptions against the realities of the practitioners in the field.

Orientation and feedback working sessions were scheduled with the American Federation of Teachers, the National Education Association, the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, the Council of Chief State School Officers, the American Association of School Administrators, university groups, community groups, and other significant role groups involved in day-to-day education processes. Each group provided valid revisions to the program design. The most striking pertained to differences between education in the urban sector and education in the rural sector. Urban and rural communities and community groups held distinct and significantly different roles in local power politics. The second major revision centered on the legal and moral roles the community had played and could play in education. What the initial policy task force had recommended in community involvement (in the ideal state) had to be modified to meet the realities of existing legislation. This point must be remembered in any analysis of data provided in this report; all the energies expended had to be and were expended within the system as it existed. "Community" was defined as the area served by the school and included parents and nonparents who lived and worked within the school's boundary. This definition was most important; it delimited the universe called community and provided an operational base for the activities required to justify within the school community the introduction of another Federal program.

Three basic tenets were observed by those involved in the program: (1) If the community which was extremely suspicious of Federal programs (after some of the OEO, HUD, and DOL efforts) was to be legitimately involved, persons introducing the program had to take the information and the services out to the community. This required preassessment of the

power structures and relationships in each prospective city before announcing the program at local sites to ensure that all received the same information simultaneously. (2) A support system would be required to provide technical assistance services after the program announcements were made at a general meeting at the site. Site meetings would provide the community with information to decide whether it wished to become involved or not. The school staff could similarly decide to become or not to become involved. It was the first time that a dual arrangement had been made which provided equal options to both school staff and community members, for initial involvement in a Federal education program. If either felt that their integrity would be compromised by the program, it could not be implemented in that school area. This criterion contributed importantly to the enhancement of the parity concept; the decision to go or not to go forward with the project was in the hands of those who would be most affected by the project. (3) If the first two tenets were to be achieved, persons other than Federal or state staff had to deliver the information and options to the local site.

The two men outside the Federal and state governments who played the most significant role in the overall development of the Leadership Training Institute were Dr. Robert Bush and Dr. Robert D. Hess at the Stanford University Research and Development Center. Dr. Davies could not have found two more conscientious and dedicated persons to carry out this very difficult and sometimes thankless assignment.

The activities of the LTI at Stanford covered two phases. Dr. Hess and Professor Barbara Hatton assumed responsibility for the development of Phase I support system activities. Dr. Bush subsequently addressed himself to the Phase II training activities. This document results from the Phase I activities conducted by Dr. Hess. A Leadership Training Institute (LTI) was established with three major purposes: (1) to help local projects orient to the goals and objectives of the Urban and Rural School Development Program, (2) to facilitate the process by which the School/Community Council at each school would be established, and (3) to provide a support system to meet project needs at the local level through construction of a regional facilitation system. This system, designed by Professor Barbara Hatton, began as an objective facilitating process, but as the project moved through its first years of operational planning and implementation, the regional facilitators became advocates for the enhancement of goals and objectives of the School/Community Council at the local project.

Dr. Bush later assumed leadership (with a totally different LTI staff) in delivering technical assistance with pedagogical content, materials and training design expertise to the local projects once Phase I had ended. While this document does not address Phase II activities, reader will note that some overlapping between phases occurred.

The Phase I regional coordinators had the major responsibility for working with the cities that had been recommended as potential candidates by the state educational agency. Superintendents of the school districts,

upon advice from the state education agency, had provided the U.S. Office of Education with data on the two or three schools in their districts that met "greatest need" criteria. A special task force team (a Federal program officer, a State education agency officer, a local university staffer, a central administration school system supervisor, and members of the Leadership Training Institute) visited and examined these schools and communities to cross-validate the criteria for selection. The team made the final recommendation as to target school and first alternate school needed in case the school staff or community members in the target area did not deire to participate in the Urban and Rural School Development Program.

Here, again, was evidence of an imaginative and proper collaboration between Federal, State and local agencies in the preparation and implementation of a new program design. Once the regional coordinators were informed of the superintendents' agreement with the task force recommendations on the specific target school population their task was to get into and learn that school community, its power relationship and its linkage needs over a period of weeks. They visited street groups, church groups, community centers and any other legal or extra-legal agency that related to affairs of the community. In rural districts they visited post offices, the county store, the bank and all other power positions unique to community influence. Once this work was done, announcements were made on local TV, on radio and in the newspapers, through the distribution of literature at schools and social services agencies, of the date and place of the first basic orientation session for the introduction of the Urban and Rural School Development Program.

In all twenty-three cases this proved in toto to be extremely successful. The information distribution system employed to meet the unique needs in each local site reached every known group. In every case but one the original target school staff and community members agreed to participate. In the case of the one exception, the alternate school staff and parents agreed to participate.

It was at this point that the support system designed through the Leadership Training Institute at Stanford University assumed the major role in helping local projects begin the arduous task of collaboration. This included election and selection processes for the formulation of the School Community Council, orientation and decision-making on the part of the temporary council members for the planning of the activities, and, most importantly, the provision of human and material resources necessary to complete the planning and proposal development process. A very low profile on the part of the Federal and State offices allowed credibility among the role groups to be enhanced at the local level by the Leadership Training Institute. It proved to be an extremely successful model.

This report will unfold to the reader the extent to which each site created its own design within the context of the program guidelines, emphasizing the importance attached to school/community integration in the education process. The Federal and State governments have earned plaudits

for self restraint; nothing was done that could prevent the projects from demonstrating these unique models. The Leadership Training Institute (Phase I) staff earn our gratitude for maintaining integrity through all of the technical assistance process, imposing no value constraints alien to the needs and desires of the local projects. The local education agency projects themselves earn greatest praise for seeing their own educational needs as unmet and striving to do something about it. Hess and Terry are to be commended for the documentation of output variables from the Phase I activities.

As a final note, the Federal Government is keeping its five year funding obligation even though organizational, personnel, and program priority changes have occurred just about yearly in the Office of Education during this period. Applause must go to USOE's OPBE, DHEW, OMB, and the U.S. Congress for their recognition and support for a demonstration effort from which many good lessons will flow and be learned.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

> More educational decisions are going to have to be made in a bigger arena than they've been made in before and this is going to benefit the system. ... I think the people that we've involved know the ins and outs now. They're not going to be afraid any more to go over to the county board office and knock on the door and say, "Hey, now--this isn't right."
>
> School Development Team Manager

> The community has begun to have a taste of having a part in that school, and they are not going to give it up.
>
> School/Community Council Chairperson

In 1970 the U.S. Office of Education, through the Bureau of Educational Personnel Development, initiated a program promoting community-school collaboration. It was called the Urban/Rural School Development Program. The purpose of this effort was to demonstrate that federal funds could strengthen the educational resources of the total school community through a joint effort between the school staff and the community. The central concept of Urban/Rural was one of parity between school and community, designed to foster cooperation between school and community and thereby lessen, on the one hand the sometimes aversive implications for school personnel of the concept of "community control," and on the other the disillusion in low-income communities with the impotence of "community advisory boards."

Much has been written in the past five years about community control and community participation in educational planning, decision-making, and administration, and it is not our purpose to review this literature or to critique the educational and political issues involved. Prompted by heightened awareness of the significance and usefulness of community participation and spurred by the requirements of federal legislation, parent or citizen advisory groups or councils have been established in many school districts. These now number in the thousands. There are reportedly 1,200 such groups currently active in two major cities for which informa-

tion is available (Chicago and Los Angeles).[1] Some type of community involvement in the planning and implementation of many educational programs has been mandated by both federal and state legislation since the passage of the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964 and the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) of 1965. Special federal and local programs have been funded that aim to improve the quality of education through increased responsiveness of the local school to the needs of the client community. Most notable among federal programs have been Title I (ESEA), Head Start, Follow Through, and the Career Opportunities Program. Examples of local programs include the Woodlawn Experimental School Project in Chicago; the Experimental Districts in New York City; Martin Luther King School in Syracuse, New York; the Anacostia project in southeast Washington, D.C.; the Federation of Community Schools in Milwaukee; the Triple T Program (Training Teachers of Teachers) in Chicago Districts 24 and 25 with Northwestern University; and the Springfield Avenue Community School in Newark, New Jersey.

The Urban/Rural School Development Program contains several elements which give it a unique character among federal efforts to facilitate school-community cooperation. These elements are: first, that at least half of the members of the joint governing body (the School/Community Council) are drawn from the community; second, that the program for each site is planned to fit the needs and circumstances of that particular community; third, that the control of funds is in the hands of the Council (with the expressed concurrence of the local school board); and fourth, that the concentration is on training of educational personnel and development of community educational resources. It is these aspects of the Urban/Rural effort that make an evaluation of the initial phase of its operation of special interest to those concerned with school-community relations.

This report may add a modest bit of information to the small amount of material available about the success of community participation programs in circumstances where the community members had significant power

[1] As cited by Don Davies in "The Emerging Third Force in Education," Inequality in Education, November 1973, p. 7.

in the planning and administrative operations. Although programs designed to facilitate community participation in disadvantaged school districts have involved large numbers of lay people and have added a new dimension to both educational procedures and policy-making practices, they have received little attention from researchers. Don Davies, former Bureau of Educational Personnel Development (BEPD) Commissioner, observed:

> Citizen participation in educational decision-making is still an underdeveloped field, both in theory and practice. The growing body of literature lacks a strong research base, tending toward emotion-laden advocacy or journalistic descriptions of "successes" and "failures." . . . Very little information and almost no research or evaluation about school councils has been assembled or analyzed nationally.[2]

The extent of support for the strategy of community particpation as a means of bringing about beneficial change in the schools raises serious issues, with implications of legitimate concern to those responsible for educational policy. The requirement that program control be located in the School/Community Council, which was to be composed of both community members and school respresentatives, was perhaps the most sensitive element of Urban/Rural. In some instances, it was sufficiently threatening to cause school districts to reject the program as philosophically and politically incompatible with their own policies. It can be expected that the impact of community participation programs will be felt both in curriculum, with emphasis on local needs, and in school government. The limited political efficacy of these various community groups has been the subject of considerable speculation; systematic national studies of the ability of such groups to influence educational policy, however, have been lacking.

The Urban/Rural Program

Urban/Rural was developed under the discretionary authority of the Bureau of Educational Personnel Development at the Office of Education (OE). Designed as an experimental effort directed toward training educational personnel at a small number of schools in low-income communities characterized by student underachievement, it is now active at 26 sites

[2]Ibid., pp. 6-7.

throughout the United States.[3] This review covers the program as it applies to more than 45,000 students enrolled in 66 participating schools. See Appendix A for demographic information on each of the sites.

The Program Information Document (PID), the OE guidelines for Urban/Rural listed the following objectives:[4]

1. To improve performance in schools attended by high concentrations of underachieving students from low-income families.
2. To make training for educational personnel more responsive to the needs of the school, its staff, its pupil population, and the community by means of concentrating training and program development resources in a single school or in a limited number of related schools.
3. To develop decision-making capabilities in school and community personnel; to develop their ability to make decisions based upon the recognition and utilization of the interdependence of students, parents, teachers, paraprofessionals, administrators and concerned community residents.
4. To develop within the school/community a capacity for identifying critical needs and assembling ideas, resources, and strategies to meet those needs in a continuing process which provides for adjustment as the program evolves.
5. To provide for the school and community the context in which administrative, fiscal and ideological decisions are subject to those constraints generated by a collaborative process at the school/community level.
6. To effect a process through which the individual school and its community accepts responsibility for its decision, and is accountable for its actions regarding the utilization of resources, formulation of strategies and development of a program to improve pupil performance.
7. To introduce, through the initiative of the school and its community, constructive change in the life of the school which will affect the quality of education in such a way as to increase the performance, and range of opportunity for pupils.

These goals were to be accomplished through the voluntary adoption by local education agencies (LEA's) of a model within which training was

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[3]This review is concerned with only the 23 sites associated with the original Leadership Training Institute at Stanford University, from September 1970 to September 1972.

[4]"1970 Program Information, Urban/Rural School Development Program," mimeograph, Bureau of Educational Personnel Development, USOE, October 1, 1970, pp. 1-2.

to be designed and administered by a local organization established for that purpose. It was hoped that such a provision for local governance would produce training designs that were innovative, of practical value to teachers, and consistent with community needs.

The assurance of local program control by a joint community-school governing body resulted in a program that stands alone among federal programs in the legitimacy that it affords to decision-making by community members. In the Foreword to the Program Information Document, Don Davies set the tone of this venture:

> They [school personnel] will join all the people concerned with the education offered by the school--administrators, paraprofessionals, students, parents, and the community--in writing a new script for educational performance within the school. The Office of Education will not dictate to local projects. Local school superintendents will not design them. They will be the creation and responsibility of the entire school staff and local community.[5]

Decision-making authority was to rest with the School/Community Council (SCC), composed of "elected representatives from the ranks of teachers, administrators, and other school staff; and the community (which will include students)."[6] The acceptance of this program component by LEA officials was required by OE prior to school district participation. Spelled out in a "Letter of Intent," this commitment read in part:

> We agree to give this duly elected Council authority for planning the Urban/Rural Program in the school or schools where it is to be located. This includes programmatic, administrative, and fiscal decision-making powers.

The sanction given thus recognized the paramount importance of the School/Community Council. Participating LEA's thereby accepted the OE assumption that educational change might follow changes in the power of communities to help plan and operate their own educational activities. The authority of the Councils was bolstered by funds, which were expected to be approximately $750,000 for the five-year duration of the program.

The responsibility of the School/Community Council was to design, administrate, and implement training programs that in the judgment of the

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[5]Ibid., p. iii

[6]Ibid., p. 11

Council would alleviate educational problems it had defined. OE guidelines specified that the SCC should "be free to develop and operate education personnel training programs in designated schools and to make such decisions requisite to that responsibility. Such freedom must also include the right to expend funds for activities required to support the development and operation of the training programs."[7] The question of what activities legitimately could be interpreted as training was broadly answered by OE:

> Any training is appropriate which develops whatever skills are lacking and needed for the conduct of the school, regardless of who lacks the skills--whether superintendent, principals, community participants, parents, support personnel, teachers, clerks, aides, or others. The skills selected for development must be those which contribute to the management of the school, or to improvements in the school programs. School programs may include social, recreational, health, nutritional, transportation, instructional, or other activities specifically judged by the school community council to be consistent with school objectives.[8]

Community involvement at each site was assured through the application of a concept of "parity" to the composition of SCCs, with "at least half the membership represented comprising other than the school staff."[9] All those persons, not employed by the school system, who resided in the area served by the Urban/Rural schools were designated as community members.

One of the original advocates of parity at the Office of Education, William Smith, has defined the concept as:

> the deliberate, collaborative or mutual, decision-making on the part of those rendering services and those receiving services. It touches on the whole notion of power equalization and focuses on the assumption that people with an emotional stake in an enterprise will take more care to perfect that enterprise. In the case of a school, the education of children becomes that enterprise. School staffs deliver the service while the community delivers the clients to receive that service. Both staff and community have a major investment in the enterprise and must mutually decide outcomes.[10]

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[7]"The Role of School Community Council," supplementary program materials, mimeograph, Urban/Rural School Development Program, USOE, November 23, 1971.

[8]"Purposes for Which Project Funds May Be Used," undated mimeograph to the sites, USOE, received by Stanford LTI, January 1972.

[9]"1970 Program Information," p. 11.

[10]Smith, William L., "The Need for an Urban/Rural Strategy," undated, unpublished manuscript, pp. 5-6.

Parity, conceived to guarantee significant community involvement, together with the decision-making capability of the SCC, offers the student of citizen participation a unique opportunity to observe the dynamics of power as shared between groups that in most cases lacked cooperative experiences with each other.

Beginning in 1970, technical assistance to the sites was provided through an administrative mechanism called the Leadership Training Institute (LTI; one of several such units funded by OE) located at Stanford University as an affiliated program of the Center for Research and Development in Teaching and directed by Robert D. Hess. The Urban/Rural LTI's role was unique in the sense that it was designed, in effect, to facilitate the implementation of the program; central to the field operations were seven Regional Coordinators, each of whom was to maintain a close and continuing relationship with a group of the local sites. Whereas the Office of Education had the legal responsibility for the program, the LTI served as the interface between OE and the sites. They were assisted in this effort by local people recruited and trained by the Regional Coordinators and hired as Field Facilitators by the LTI. This assistance was provided during the first two years of the program; the involvement of the Regional Coordinators with their sites ended by September 1972.[11]

Goals of this Report

During the early stages of discussion of the role of the Stanford LTI in the technical assistance components of the total Urban/Rural program, it was agreed that attempts would be made to describe the operation of the program and to document its progress.

This paper is a descriptive and evaluative report of the first three years of the program, the two years during which the LTI was active at the sites and the following year when the sites were operating with the combined resources of the special funds and their own experience and com-

[11] At the request of the Office of Education, technical assistance was again provided beginning approximately a year later under the direction of Robert N. Bush, who is also the Director of the Center for Research and Development in Teaching, and continues to the date of this report, January 1975.

petence. The purpose of this report, prepared by the original LTI, is to describe the factors involved in developing the organizational structures needed for community-school collaboration, the variety of patterns that emerged at the sites, and the degree of effectiveness they were able to achieve. It is directed to a consideration of those elements that have helped shape the influence of community members on local educational policy. Where it seems reasonable to us, given the nature of the available data, we offer some observations and impressions about the conditions that made some sites relatively effective in establishing and implementing the program and the circumstances which seemed to hinder efforts in other communities. This report assembles information from the 23 sites which indicates progress or lack of progress toward these goals. It is both a description of the status of the program and an evaluation.

The analysis presented in the following chapters is dependent upon information about the operations and structure of the Urban/Rural program common to all sites. The information that the sites were asked to submit to the LTI was that which related to the make-up and procedures used by the local School/Community Council. This paper is directed to questions of who the SCC is, how it accomplishes its goals, and to what effect.

CHAPTER 2

DESIGN OF THE SURVEY AND OVERVIEW OF THE SITES

> This is the first time, that I know of, in the 20 years I've been in the schcol system here that we've got something that somebody else wants.
>
> School Development Team Manager

The Urban/Rural Site Survey was designed and conducted by the Leadership Training Institute (LTI) at Stanford University to gather data for the description and assessment of the status of the Urban/Rural program at the 23 sites at the end of the third year. The resources, in terms of funds and number of staff available, were modest and set constraints upon the extent and detail of the survey procedures.

The survey activities began in late spring 1973 with a planning session to identify the objectives of the study and the types of data to be sought.

Although Urban/Rural activities at each site are directed toward improving academic achievement of the pupil population, it was not our intent to evaluate the program in the usual terms of student progress but rather to describe most or all of the effects of implementation and their possible relationship to the success of the program.

The concept of "success" of a program such as this cannot be taken from typical notions of program accomplishments. One of the measures of "success" in this type of endeavor is the extent to which the creative ideas that provided the original impetus for the program have become realities in the local arenas, with their unique and complex qualities. The 23 sites were vastly different from one another, though the common characteristics of economic poverty and low educational achievement may create an illusion of similarity.[1]

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[1] A description of the program implementation practice followed by four selected sites is presented in Alan Weisberg, The Urban/Rural School Development Program: An Account of the First Two Years of an Office of Education Experiment in School-Community Parity, U.S. Office of Education, February 1973.

The goal of the first part of the program, then, was to establish relationships between the communities and the schools which would in each case give the institution and the community roughly equal parts in the program. A complete analysis of the extent to which equality of power exists in such an intricate and complex situation is probably impossible. Who can say what influenced a particular decision? Was it the status of the school principal who made the suggestion? Or had he rephrased an idea that he saw taking shape in the comments of a community member of the group? Did familiarity with educational jargon and practice give the school faculty members an undue advantage? Or did the ability of one member to talk until he prevailed turn out to be the key element in a particular decision? While we might by careful analysis have been able to answer such questions with firm data, to obtain the data on these decisions from the many meetings of such diverse School/Community Councils would have been an impractical and probably unfeasible task.

We tried to obtain information that could be used as indicators of the success with which the initial phase was solidly established. Evaluations of the further success of the program may well call for different criteria and different data. From our perspective the central goals of the program which guided the decisions about what information to gather were these:

1. To establish an administrative structure which would give the community parity in the planning, decision-making, and implementation of the program.
2. To establish a Council representative of the low-income community in which the schools exist.
3. To develop the resources of the local community for participating in educational activities of the school.
4. To develop training programs which would meet the specific educational needs of the community.

The design, as shown in the following outline, was prepared to secure information relating to the program objectives described in the previous chapter.

Information on the following aspects of the program were sought:

1. Organization and structure of the School Community Council.
   A. Membership, officers, community and school representatives, tenure of members on SCC.
   B. SCC meetings. Meeting times and location, attendance, ability to function as a decision-making body, number of decisions made, minutes of meetings.
   C. SCC and the community. Presence at SCC meetings of guests and community members not on the Council, public announcements of meetings and SCC actions, relation between school and community representatives.
   D. The School Development Team Manager. Characteristics, background.
2. Representatives of SCC.
   A. Level of education, occupation, residence of both school and community members.
   B. Ethnicity of SCC members, ethnic proportions in school population, sexual balance of SCC membership.
3. The programs planned and implemented by the SCC.
   A. Types of programs developed, extent to which these reflected needs of the community.
   B. Evidence of training of teaching staff about the nature of the community and its special educational needs.
   C. Evidence of efforts to develop educational resources in the community through training or experiences provided by the program.
4. Relationship between the program and other parts of the school and community social and political network.
   A. Interaction with the principal, the LEA, and the state educational authorities.
   B. Interaction with teachers' unions and groups--AFT (American Federation of Teachers), NEA (National Education Association).
   C. Contact and coordination with the Model Cities agencies or other relevant federal programs.

5. Program impact and problems of implementation.
   A. Attitudes of participants toward the program.
   B. Evidence of changes in the schools involved or in the district.
   C. Indications of diffusion to other schools or districts.

Information was gathered through interviews, questionnaires, and written materials submitted by the staff at each site (see p. 14). Survey field activities were begun in spring 1973 with a visit by the senior author to eight of the Urban/Rural sites. The remaining 15 sites were visited during the summer. At each location interviews were usually conducted with at least two people: the School Development Team Manager (SDTM), and the chairperson of the School/Community Council. Information was gathered about the operation of the program, especially the training activities and the relationships between the program and other parts of the school system, as well as the operation of the Council, the involvement of community members, procedures for replacing Council members, and other aspects of the Council's organization and actions. The interviews, which covered many of the topics outlined above, were tape recorded and provided both factual information and subjective observations about the program and its operation. Information gathered through the interviews was generally not available in written form. It offered a context in which to analyze and understand the more formal types of data about site activities. The site visit also provided the opportunity to meet with SCC members and staff and to observe the local Urban/Rural facilities and the educational and community environment in which they were located.

Written materials, obtained during the site visits and by correspondence, were of two types: existing documents and questionnaires prepared for the purpose of the survey. Each site was asked to submit copies of these documents:

1. A complete set of minutes of SCC meetings covering the period from June 1, 1972, to June 1, 1973. These minutes provided information about meeting times, location, attendance, and decision-making.
2. The SCC Constitution and/or Bylaws.

3. The two proposals most recently submitted to OE for continuing funds to pursue the program.
4. Any materials, such as evaluations done by outside agencies, reports, newsletters, etc., that would document in greater detail the activities of the local program between June 1, 1972, and June 1, 1973.

These materials, together with the interviews, provided basic data about local program operations and the documentation necessary to resolve factual questions and help to assess the accuracy of the completed questionnaires. In many cases, the information requested in the questionnaires required the accumulation of data not previously recorded at the site. Several sites, for example, had not maintained an accurate listing of all SCC members, and the support documents made the compilation of a complete list possible.

5. The Urban/Rural site survey questionnaires (see Appendix B). These were designed to elicit information not otherwise available. The forms were distributed and explained during the site visit, and the School Development Team Managers agreed to monitor their completion. In most cases, individual SCC members filled out their own Membership Profile form, and the two remaining forms (Staff Profile and Training Activities) were completed by the SCC staff.

    a. SCC Membership Profile--a separate form was to be completed for every person who had served on the SCC from the formation date until September 1, 1973. It included questions relating to both the characteristics of SCC members and the organization and structure of the Council, i.e., member residence, offices, tenure, educational level, ethnicity, etc.

The information on SCC size and composition derived from these forms was used for the analysis of parity and representation in Chapter 3.

b. SCC Staff Profile--a separate form was to be filled out for every person who had been employed by the SCC in a nontraining capacity from the formation date until September 1, 1973.

The SCCs had the authority to hire an administrative staff with a School Development Team Manager as their chief administrative officer. This form provided information on the SDTM and support staff and included questions about residence, ethnicity, sex, dates of employment, educational background, job description, and experience.

c. Training Activities Form--completed forms were to indicate information for every training activity for which funds had been expended during the period June 1, 1972, to June 1, 1973. This covered the purposes of the training, where it took place, the number and type of participants, the participation of outside consultants or agencies, the format, and other pertinent information. Particular attention was directed to those training activities concerning the nature of the community and its special educational needs.

This report is divided into four major sections. Chapter 3 concerns the structure of the local SCCs and the degree to which these organizations have demonstrated parity and have been representative. Chapter 4 reviews the operations and procedures of the SCC and the ways in which these have enhanced parity and community input. Chapter 5 concentrates on training programs, with emphasis on the degree to which they have responded to local needs. In that chapter, the sites are compared on the basis of estimates of the amount of community input in the program. Chapter 6 is a summary of the major findings of the survey together with some conclusions applicable to similar community involvement programs.

The National Setting

The following analysis of basic program dimensions provides a context for the more detailed examination of council operations in the

chapters which follow. These data indicate in a general way the scope of the program and the characteristics of the schools it involves.

The distinction between urban and rural sites, implicit within the program title, encompasses many of the variables of school size and composition important to an understanding of the inter-site program variations. In recognition of the given situational differences between urban and rural sites, this study distinguishes between urban and rural sites in the presentation of our information.

The 23 sites under consideration are located in 19 states, and the program is operating in 66 schools. Table 2.1 gives the distribution of sites and schools. The average number of schools per site is 2.8, with urban sites having 2.4 and rural sites 3.3. The range in number of schools, however, indicates more variety: seven sites have only a single school while one site has 9.

Table 2.1

Distribution of Sites and Schools

Area	Sites	Schools
Urban	12 (52%)	29 (44%)
Rural	11 (48%)	37 (56%)
Total	23 (100%)	66 (100%)

In the majority of sites (14) the Urban/Rural schools represent only part of the larger school district, having been selected as a sample or model from among the total number of schools under LEA jurisdiction. This situation exists at all of the urban sites (12) and two of the rural ones. Eight of the remaining nine rural sites have instituted the Urban/Rural program in all of the schools within the school district. The one remaining rural site has a single school in each of three districts. School board approval is necessary for SCC-initiated proposals, and the potential common interest in and necessity for communication between the SCC and the board at the eight rural sites where all schools in the district are in-

cluded is one example of the different circumstances faced by urban and rural SCCs. The program was less salient at the urban sites and would be expected to receive less attention.

Although the rural Councils are working with a larger number of schools, the size of those schools is smaller than at the urban sites. The average rural school has 387 students, only 36 percent of the urban average of 1,089. The five sites with the largest student population, all urban, share 47 percent of the total Urban/Rural student population among them. The teaching staff averages 122 at urban sites, with a total of 1,460, and 63 at rural sites, with a total of 691. The range for individual schools is from a two-teacher rural school with 45 children to one urban school with over 2,500 students and 88 teachers.

Student distribution between elementary (73%) and secondary (27%) levels within the Urban/Rural schools (see Table 2.2) is similar to the national distribution statistics, which show 70 percent for K-8 and 30 percent for 9-12.[2] The situation faced by several individual SCCs in the design of training programs, however, is not indicated by the figure in Table 2.2. Only 4 of the 12 urban sites are working with K-12 or 1-12 programs in contrast to 8 of the 11 rural sites. The remaining 11 sites are located in elementary and junior high schools. This restriction of program activities to a segment within the educational system, most apparent at the urban sites, imposes planning restraints on the SCCs that limit their impact on the total system.

Table 2.2

Distribution of Students by Elementary and Secondary Levels within Urban and Rural Areas

Area	K-8	9-12	Total
Urban	22,361 (71%)	9,006 (29%)	31,367 (100%)
Rural	10,989 (78%)	3,059 (22%)	14,048 (100%)
Total	33,350 (73%)	12,065 (27%)	45,415 (100%)

[2] Betty J. Foster, Statistics of Public Elementary and Secondary Schools: Fall 1972 (Washington, D.C.: National Center for Educational Statistics, GPO, 1973), pp. 18-19.

Not surprisingly, total teaching staff figures correspond to the pupil statistics; more urban than rural teachers are involved in the program. The number of teachers is particularly important since they, rather than the students, are the participants in the training programs arising out of local Urban/Rural projects.

The student ethnic composition (see Table 2.3) differs markedly between urban and rural sites and provides a further perspective on the dimensions of the program.

Table 2.3

Ethnicity of Students by Area
(percentages)

Area	Native American	Black	Spanish Surname	White
Urban	0	76	12	12
Rural	5	6	5	84
Total	1	54	10	35

The concentration of minority students (88%) at urban sites and white students (84%) at rural sites takes on particular significance when contrasted with information about the ethnicity of the teaching staffs, as shown in Table 2.4 The fact that the Urban/Rural schools

Table 2.4

Ethnicity of Teaching Staff by Area
(percentages)

Area	Black	Spanish Surname	White
Urban	44	3	53
Rural	3	5	92
Total	31	3	66

Note: There were no Native Americans on the teaching staff at any Urban/Rural school.

have a majority of white teachers has implications for the urban sites where student ethnicity figures indicate a largely minority community population. Of the 29 urban schools, only 5 (at a single site) have a majority of white students. In the resolution of differences between school and community educational priorities, the urban sites thus are faced with a racial imbalance that is not characteristic of the rural sites. In this situation, where white teachers are responsible for the education of minority students, the design of training programs that reflect community needs places additional demands on the planning skills of the SCC.

Although the situation at each of the Urban/Rural sites is unique, the overview of the national program presented here does point up the different conditions (in terms of ethnic distribution of students, school size, etc.) faced by urban and rural SCCs. The SCCs have been charged with the task of introducing change into their local educational systems and are themselves a part of those systems. The latitude of decisions available to the Council members is determined both by the talents that they are able to attract and by the constraints imposed by the local situation. The general conditions existing at the rural sites appear to be more receptive for the establishment of a viable Urban/Rural program than those at the urban sites. Typically, the program at the rural sites operates in smaller schools that often have a full K-12 schedule and involves all the schools within the district. The magnitude of the program relative to the size of the district is greater, affording more attention, visibility, and status. These observations are not meant to imply that Urban/Rural success was determined entirely by preexisting conditions but are made for the purpose of recognizing the advantages inherent in those conditions.

CHAPTER 3

REPRESENTATION AND PARITY IN THE SCHOOL/COMMUNITY COUNCILS

> The parents didn't understand the teachers, the teachers didn't understand the parents, and the students didn't understand either one of them. By coming together, we learned to respect one another and to more or less work together.
>
> School/Community Council Chairperson

> I think what we are trying to get across to parents today is: You don't fight the system; you join with the system, and together collectively you can come up with something constructive --for the school, for the system.
>
> School/Community Council Chairperson

School system participation in the Urban/Rural School Development Program followed recognition by the local education agencies that the School/Community Council (SCC) was the legitimate decision-making body responsible for all programmatic, administrative, and fiscal matters related to the program. With this authority, assured by both the Office of Education and the LEA, the SCCs have provided a degree of community involvement unique among federal education programs. Guidelines issued by OE defined the role to be assumed by the SCC and laid out general criteria for its membership.

The ability of the program to achieve change in the relationship within and between the school and community is linked directly to the composition of the Council. The local viability of the program is determined by the legitimacy extended to the Council by both school personnel and community residents. Thus, the degree to which the Council is representative of the community and the school and provides a stage for parity between these respective groups is of particular importance for understanding the on-site functioning of Urban/Rural.

Representativeness and parity are difficult to measure precisely and directly but are indicated by several aspects of the program and its operation. This chapter is devoted to a consideration of data on the characteristics of the SCC and its members that relate to these two concepts.

The indicators from the survey data that were taken to signify representativeness were:

Proportion of community SCC members who were residents of the area served by the school.

Proportion of community SCC members who were parents of children in the participating schools.

Balance of males and females among the community members of the SCC.

Ethnic membership of the community SCC members in comparison with the ethnic distribution of the student population.

Occupation of the community members.

Distribution of school staff among the school members of the SCC.

Indicators of parity (comparison of school and community member characteristics) included:

Proportion of SCC members who came from the community.

Comparison of educational backgrounds of school and community representatives.

Comparison of male/female ratios between community and school representatives.

Comparison of school and community parents.

Comparison of ethnicity of community and school representatives.

The Urban/Rural program is locally designed by the School/Community Council. The success of the total Urban/Rural program is dependent upon these Councils, as is the local fate of this unique experiment in citizen participation. It is this organization that is central to the OE design and is the locally identifiable unit distinguishing this education program from others.

The initial OE guidelines were specific in their insistence that each Council fulfill two major criteria: that it be representative and that it reflect the concept of parity. A significant degree of autonomy over local programs has been granted the SCCs and each has been tempered by local constraints. The federal requirement for parity within a Council that is representative is thus a common denominator of the program.

The following description of the SCCs at each of the 23 Urban/Rural sites is focused on Council composition as it relates to representativeness and parity. During the period prior to the cut-off date of this

study (September 1973), the School/Community Councils had been in operation an average of just over two years. Each Council has experienced the normal membership changes that come from resignation and new elections. A total of 904 persons participated as voting members prior to September 1973. With each new member the accuracy with which the SCC represents its constituency and the parity between the school and community components may shift. The attention of this chapter is directed to Councils that have existed over time--that is, to all of the people who collectively have made up the membership of the Councils during the period under consideration.

Representation

Urban/Rural was predicated on the idea that the people most immediately affected by the local educational enterprise should have a voice in the decisions made in their behalf. This was understood to include both the school staff and community residents. Teachers would be given the opportunity to take part in the design of training programs in which they would later participate. Input would be sought from both paraprofessionals and nonprofessionals in recognition of the extensive contact that they often have with the students, and training would be designed to upgrade their educational skills. School staff involvement was also dictated by pragmatic considerations; their exclusion from program design would possibly create resistance to the planned activities. A similar consideration was applied in behalf of community involvement. Training undertaken without community support or understanding would be unlikely to have any lasting impact.

Community involvement was based on the idea that local residents would have a unique local perspective and would therefore have important qualifications necessary to pass judgment on community educational needs. This first-hand knowledge of the neighborhood, together with a concern for the education of the community's youth, would provide a realistic basis for the deliberations of the Council and would in turn result in programs tailored to each of the local sites. This scenario calls for a Council that is representative of the community--both residents and teachers.

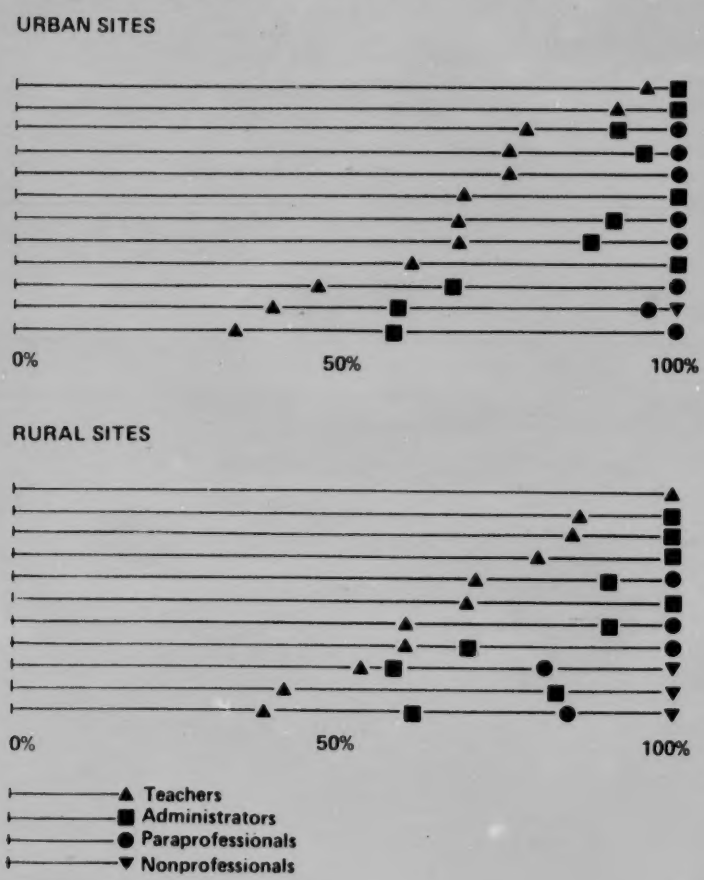
School Staff Representation

SCC members selected to speak for the school were to represent all groups within the school (or schools; at sites with several schools, each school was represented). The Office of Education had defined "school staff" as "all employees as well as volunteers who are assigned to a specific school participating in the Urban/Rural School Development Program,"[1] a definition which encouraged membership by both certified and noncertified staff.

An important aspect of the representative character of the school component is illustrated in Figure 3.1. Among those members representing the school staff, teachers comprise the largest group. Differing

Figure 3.1

Distribution of School SCC Members



[1]"1970 Program Information," p. xi.

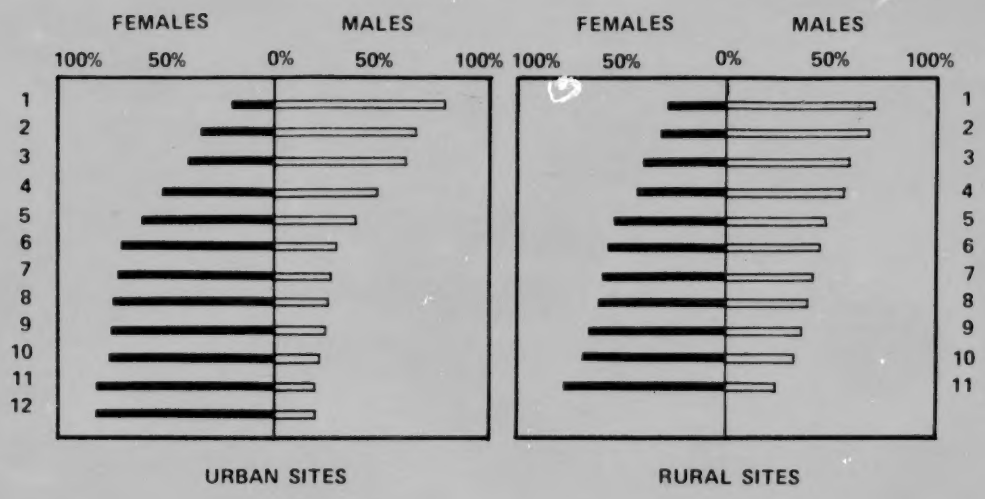
from one another by only a single percentage point, urban and rural sites together draw 67 percent of their school staff membership from this group. This is comparable to the figure for all public schools in the U.S., where 69 percent of the total school staff are instructional.[2]

Likewise, there is little distinction between urban and rural sites in administrative representation. The average for all sites is 19 percent; all but two have had administrative input. Paraprofessionals have fared less well, since 10 sites have not included them as members. Councils in urban areas have 14 percent paraprofessionals, and rural sites have 9 percent. Only 4 of the 23 sites count nonprofessionals as members, and 3 of those are rural. Because paraprofessionals and nonprofessionals are likely to be local residents they may be expected to represent local concerns, although within the Urban/Rural guidelines they are counted as school staff members. Nine sites have neither paraprofessionals nor nonprofessionals on the Council. Where they are included, the community origins and affiliations of these two groups of staff members augment the local representation while maintaining the parity guidelines.

Figure 3.2 shows the proportions of each sex among school staff

Figure 3.2

Distribution of School SCC Members
by Sex, by Site, and by Area



[2] Ranking of the States, 1973, Research Report 1973--R1 (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1973), p. 22.

representatives at each of the 23 sites. Females tend to be predominant at both urban and rural sites due to the large number of elementary schools (where there are more female teachers) in the Urban/Rural program. Urban sites show this most markedly with a mean of 72 percent females in contrast to the rural mean of 58 percent females. These figures cannot be used to document the fairness of the distribution of the sexes since comparable figures are not available for the total school staff, but the outcome is not surprising in light of the corresponding national figures which show that of all teachers in public schools, 66 percent are female.[3]

Community Representation

The representative qualities of the community component of the SCC are of particular importance to the Urban/Rural model. The inclusion of local residents in the decision-making process is intended to ensure that change may occur in response to community needs. It is the composition of this SCC component that establishes or denies local credibility for the program, and it is through these members that the larger community becomes involved. The identification and use of local educational resources can be facilitated or thwarted by these Council members. Perhaps most importantly, they must help serve as the conduit for knowledge about the educational system to their fellow citizens.

OE program designers had recognized that a prerequisite for locally sensitive change was an increase in the educational sophistication of the client community. Many new community SCC members had not had opportunities to develop such sophistication. For them, the Council meetings themselves were often the source of valuable training in both organizational skills and educational know-how. Funds were available to the SCCs to extend this knowledge into the larger community and provide an informational base for any school/community dialogue. The presence on the Council of representative community members would help to ensure that the methods adopted for any community education program would allow it to reach the desired audience.

Community Council members were to be drawn from the adult population served by the Urban/Rural schools, and the guidelines did not specify that they must be parents of children in the participating schools. Once

[3]Ibid., p. 23.

formed, the Councils wrote their own constitutions or bylaws, each of which provided for the possibility of future changes in composition within the OE guidelines for representation and parity.

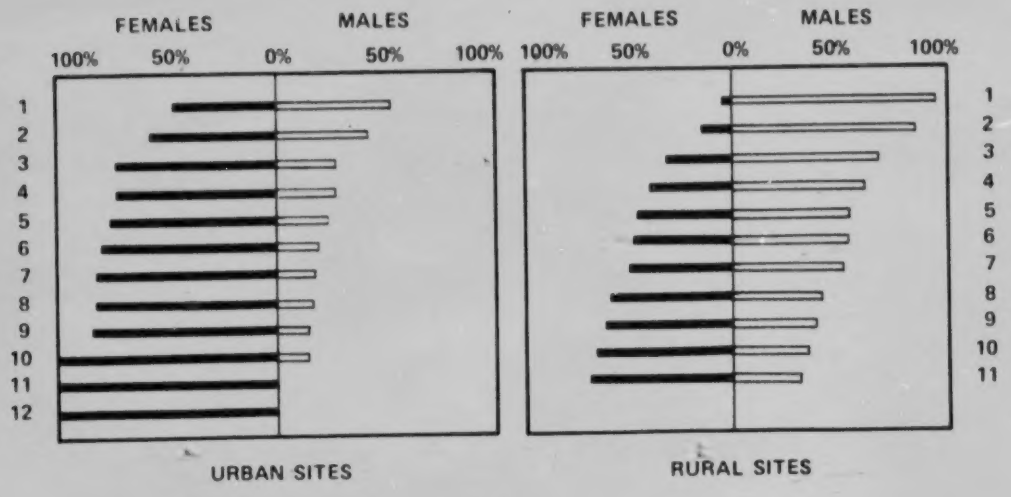
Information received from the 391 people who have served as community representatives on their SCCs indicates that 97 percent were local residents during the time they served on the Council. Five urban sites reported that not all of their community representatives were local residents; nonresidents ranged from 4 to 21 percent. Although this is clearly contrary to PID specifications, no explanation for the situation was offered.

Community representatives tend to be parents of children in the participating schools. Several Councils specified that only parents were eligible for membership, and seven sites have 100 percent parents. Eight sites have less than 75 percent; the program average is 82 percent. Although these figures are not surprising in view of the higher interest that might be expected of parents and the prior experiences that the school system has had with such groups as the PTA, they do indicate that, in the period being examined, the community components are not representative of the total community.

The distribution between male and female community members is shown in Figure 3.3 As with school representatives, female community members

Figure 3.3

Distribution of Community SCC Members
by Sex, by Site, and by Area



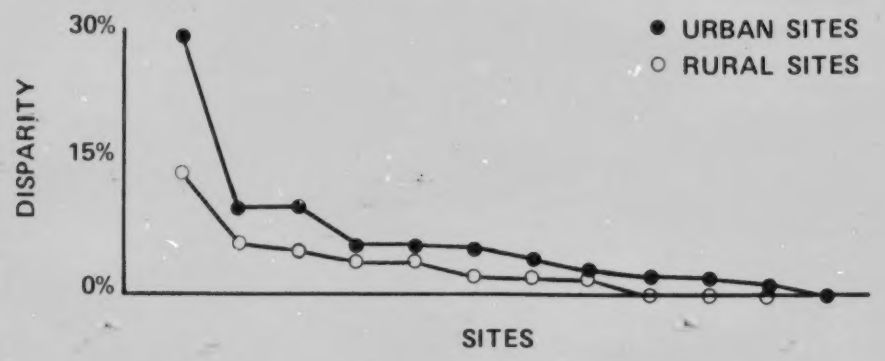
predominate at the urban sites. The mean figure for females at urban sites is 81 percent. Males predominate slightly at rural sites (53%). The absence of urban male community representatives reflects a family pattern that exists in many ghetto communities.

Disparity charts are used in this chapter to present information about the differences and similarities between the school and community members on each of the SCCs. Each point on the chart, or figure, represents one SCC. The position of the points along the horizontal axis is determined by ranking: those SCCs showing greater disparity are at the left and those with less are at the right. The horizontal distance between points is arbitrary, but uniform. The lines connecting all urban and all rural sites are meant to make possible an overall comparison of urban and rural areas. The distance of the point from the base line (0 percent disparity) indicates the aggregate disparity of the SCC from the inception of the Council until September 1973. Disparity, for the purpose of this study, refers to the lack of congruity between the school and community representatives as indicated by the particular quality or characteristic being measured (or, as in Figure 3.4, between the community and the community members of the SCC). For example, if 25 percent of a Council community members have Bachelor's degrees and 80 percent of the school staff have the same degree, there is a 25 percent overlap and a 55 percent disparity.

Figure 3.4 shows the disparity between the ethnic background of each

Figure 3.4

Disparity in Ethnic Background between Pupils and Community SCC Members by Site and by Area



site's pupil population and its community SCC representatives. The assumption here is that the ethnic background of the pupils will be similar to that of the community. Thus, the chart graphically displays the percentage difference between these two groups as a method of judging the degree to which the community representatives on the Council are of the same ethnic background as their fellow citizens. A site at which the ethnic composition of these two groups is identical would therefore be indicated on the 0 percent disparity line.

Although nine sites have community representatives of only one race, and only three sites have an equally homogeneous student population, Figure 3.4 demonstrates that most sites have achieved an equitable ethnic distribution that fairly represents the larger community.

Occupational data expands upon the information already presented. More than 50 percent of the community representatives at eight of the urban sites are classified as homemakers or laborers. This contrasts with the rural sites, where only one site has as high as 47 percent of these categories. The total average of homemakers or laborers among community representatives for urban sites is 51 percent and 28 percent for rural sites. Professionals or people at the managerial level comprise more than 30 percent of the community membership at five of the rural sites, whereas no urban site has more than 21 percent in this category. An average of 12 percent of the urban and 20 percent of the rural community representatives are so employed.

In addition to school and community representatives, most of the SCCs have members drawn from the student body. In all, a total of 119 students have served on 18 SCCs, representing grade levels from 4 through 12. The impact of their presence, with a few notable exceptions, has been negligible. According to interview information, they hesitated to participate in SCC activities as advocates of student priorities.

In these measurements of the degree to which the school and community representatives on the various SCCs share certain traits in common with members of their constituencies, several trends are apparent. Not many school representatives have been drawn from the ranks of paraprofessionals and nonprofessionals, and the education level of these school-

based SCC members is thus higher than it might have been had a more equitable distribution been employed. This characteristic is apparent at both urban and rural sites, as is the predominance of female school representatives.

Community representatives nearly all live within the area served by the Urban/Rural schools, and 82 percent of them are parents of children attending these schools. Community members who do not presently have children in the participating schools are underrepresented. Underrepresentation also occurs at the urban sites because of the low proportion of male community members. Ethnic data do not indicate any marked disparity between community representatives and pupil populations. Overall, the sites may be judged to have done a credible job in involving representative members from both the school and community.

Community members from the rural sites tend to have a higher level of educational achievement than those at urban sites. Occupational categories also reflect a higher educational level among community members at the rural sites.

A more accurate picture of the internal dynamics of the Councils is presented when school representatives are viewed against their counterparts from the community. It is in this context of the two groups working together that the concept of parity assumes its significance.

Parity

The requirement that the SCCs operationalize parity between representative members from both the school staff and the community presents each Council with a dilemma. The two qualities of representativeness and parity are to some degree mutually exclusive at Urban/Rural sites. In economically depressed areas a truly representative group of the local citizenry will not contain educational attributes, training, and experience normally associated with those necessary for "power equalization" with the school staff. Certified staff members normally must possess at least a Bachelor of Arts degree. They have the advantage that comes with considerable experience within the school system and are comfortable

with educational jargon. Their income is often far in excess of the community norm, and in urban areas they usually do not have the vested interest in the school that comes with local residency and parenthood. A community group with the qualities of education, occupation, and administrative know-how to match the school group would not, in turn, be representative.

Parity, as envisioned by OE, was to be the goal for each School/Community Council. Defined partly by numbers but more importantly as equality of power within a relationship between differing groups, it is neither static nor readily discernible. The emphasis in this discussion will be on the indicators of the potential power of both school and community groups working within a single organization--the SCC.

The OE guidelines devote only one sentence to parity:

> The concept of parity should be reflected in the composition of the Council, with at least half the membership represented comprising other than school staff.[4]

The opportunity was thus afforded to form the Council in such a way as to approach a balance of power. When the SCC is viewed as a negotiating body it will be seen that the effectiveness, or power, of the members of one group on the Council will be determined by the credibility that they are able to establish and maintain with members of the other group. It is assumed here that when these two groups, school and community, share certain common qualities they are more likely to achieve negotiating success than when they have little in common.

Figure 3.5 shows the disparity between the school and community components of each Council in percent of males. Why is this comparison important? Recognition or attribution of equal status contributes to parity. Status within the group helps to define power within the group, and it may be ascribed for a variety of reasons, including sex. For example, a group of predominantly male school staff SCC members in interaction with a predominantly female community component might be reluctant

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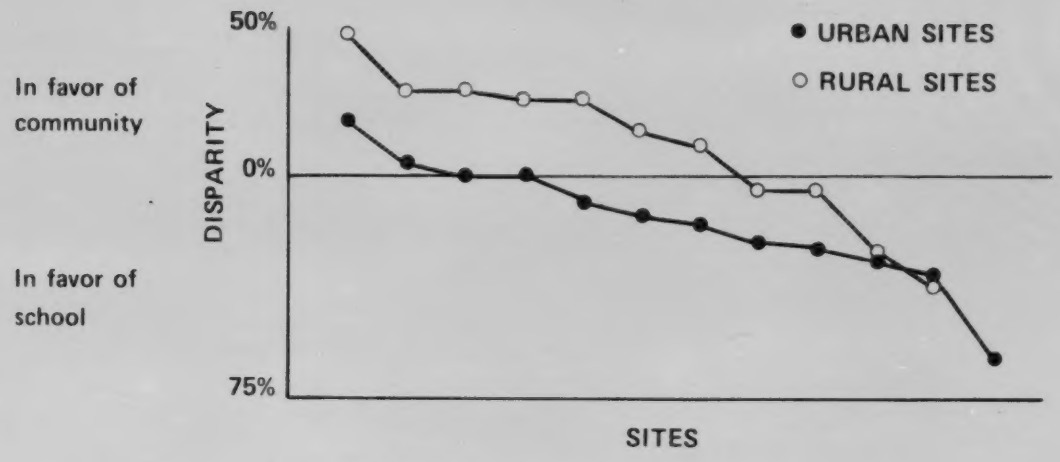
[4]"1970 Program Information," p. 11.

Figure 3.5

Disparity in Representation of Males
between School and Community SCC Members
by Site and by Area



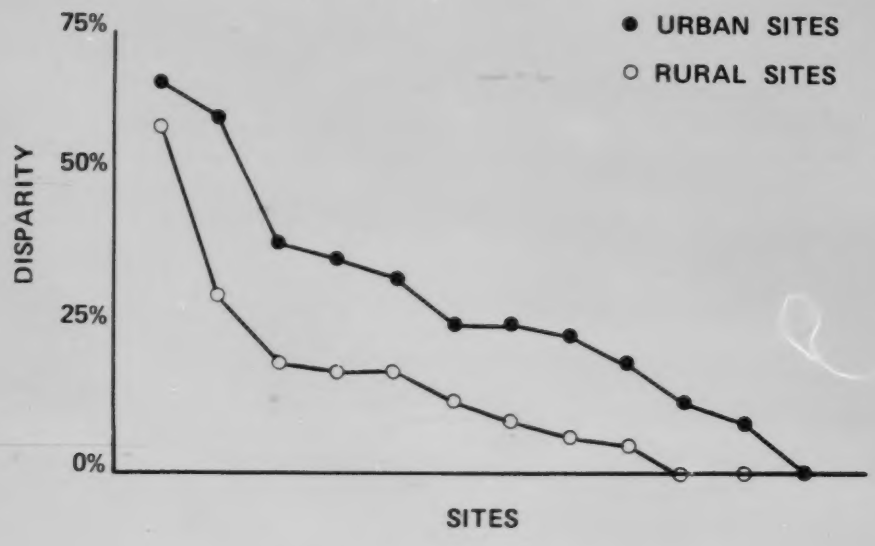
to see the community group as equal for reasons of sex rather than community origins. It is for this reason that sex characteristics are introduced into this discussion of parity.

A Council in which the percentage of males and females within the community component is exactly balanced by an equal percentage of males and females within the school group would fall on the 0 percent line. Only two urban sites exhibit such congruity. The majority of rural sites have a disparity in the direction of more males that favors the community group; at the urban sites there is a disparity in the direction of more females in both groups, but there are more males in the school group than in the community group.

A similar measurement of disparity between the ethnic backgrounds of school and community SCC members is shown in Figure 3.6. With a mean disparity of 18 percent for the total program, the average urban site shows a 28 percent disparity in contrast to the rural average of 16 percent. Only three of the 23 sites have ethnic congruity between school and community groups.

Figure 3.6

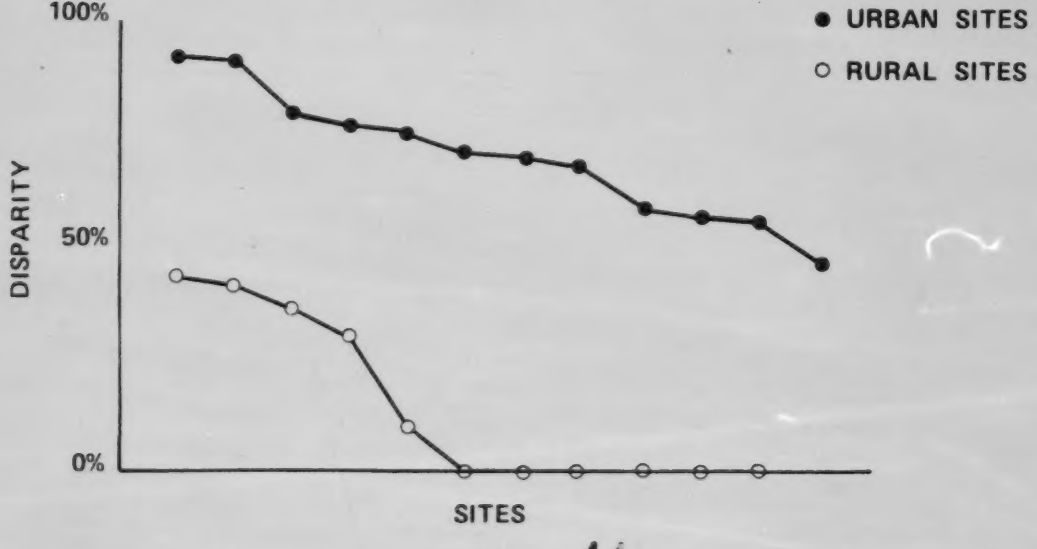
Disparity in Ethnic Background between School and Community SCC Members, by Site and by Area



The disparity between the school and community groups as it relates to residency at the Urban/Rural site presents a dramatic contrast between urban and rural sites (Figure 3.7). The mean disparity is 45 percent;

Figure 3.7

Disparity in Representation of District Residents between School and Community SCC Members, by Site and by Area

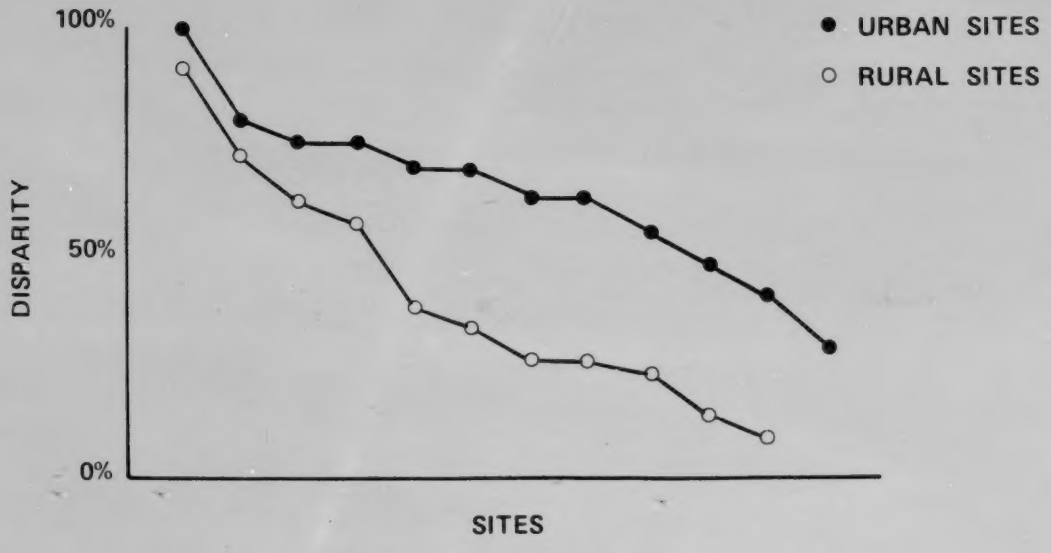


the average for all urban sites is 70 percent and for rural sites 14 percent. These figures do not indicate a peculiar failure on the part of the urban sites but portray the typical situation in which inner-city teachers do not live in the area in which they teach.

This situation is also reflected in the information presented in Figure 3.8. There exists a considerable difference between the school

Figure 3.8

Disparity in Representation of Parents
between School and Community SCC Members
by Site and by Area

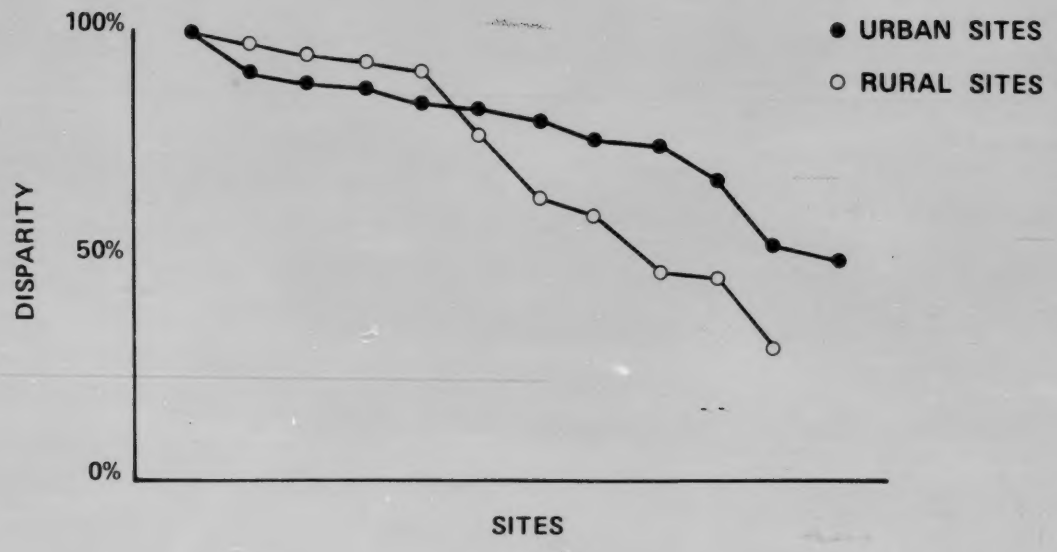


and community groups in the degree to which they are parents of children attending the Urban/Rural schools. The average disparity for all rural sites is 41 percent and for urban sites 64 percent.

The pattern that has been evident in these charts of member characteristics continues to operate in Figure 3.9, which illustrates the disparity between the educational level attained by members of the two groups. Again, the urban sites are located at a greater distance from the 0 percent line that signifies congruity. In this instance, the difference between urban and rural is not dramatic (urban average, 78 percent; rural average, 72 percent) but the tendency persists.

Figure 3.9

Disparity in Level of Education between
School and Community SCC Members
by Site and by Area



The presentation of overall disparity percentages belies the dynamic nature of the Councils, in which relationships change week by week. The charts do suggest, however, that differences exist among the various sites and between the two major groupings of urban and rural. Rural sites exhibit greater male membership than do urban. This fact takes on particular importance when negotiation with the LEA is considered. School systems have males in leadership positions, and the effectiveness of the SCC is partly determined by its ability to negotiate with the LEA officials. Based on the information available it would be justified to assume that the greater proportion of males at the rural sites would contribute to success in establishing and maintaining their autonomy with local school officials.

The measurement of ethnic disparity within the Councils relates to parity in the sense that ethnicity introduces a sensitive dimension. The assumption is that the greater the disparity the greater the potential for misunderstanding and conflicting priorities.

Residency disparity data present a sharp contrast between urban and rural sites and are presented in the belief that the neighborhood experience when shared by both school and community members will possibly lead to a sense of commonality of goals that will facilitate SCC deliberations. Similarly, the degree to which school and community members have children attending the same school is likely to contribute to shared educational priorities and concerns.

The disparity between the educational level of community members and school representatives is perhaps the most obvious indicator that the two groups have not entered into SCC membership as equal partners.

This chapter has been directed to an examination of the composition of the 23 School/Community Councils. The evidence presented indicates that the rural sites have established Councils that more closely approximate the federal idea of parity, but the concept gains significance only through action--in this case the decisions made by the Council. In the following two chapters we will look at how the Councils conducted their business and some of the decisions they have made, in order to review the on-site implications of representativeness and parity.

CHAPTER 4

COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT

> These meetings are open and they are posted. We grappled with this idea of a tight little group that would, in effect, become the same thing that the school is--a structured thing that nobody can reach, nobody can touch, nobody can make a dent on.
>
> School/Community Council Chairperson

The School/Community Council is responsible for encouraging and attending to program input from all sectors of the school and community. Even though the composition of the SCC may be representative and provide a significant degree of power to both groups, SCC activities can take place either in relative isolation from the constituency of the Council or in a climate of exchange and communication. The continued communication between the Council and the community and school depends upon Council efforts to maintain open channels and upon the confidence that the school and the community afford the SCC.

The degree of access to the SCC and its deliberations and the confidence placed in its action are, of course, difficult to observe, measure, and quantify. The evidence we have gathered is only indicative and indirect, but it may serve to describe the profile of the overall program and the variation among sites. The indicators discussed here were selected to reflect something of the spirit of the relationship between the SCCs and the school/community context in which they have operated, particularly community accessibility to program deliberations and operations. These indicators are:

1. Degree of access to SCC meetings.
2. Organizational continuity of the SCC.
3. Characteristics of the SCC staff.
4. Decision-making capabilities of the SCC.

Despite the attention given to "community involvement" in recent years, the term defies precise definition. "Community" is defined for the Urban/Rural program to mean residents within a school area together

with parents of children outside the area who attend the school; the precise meaning of involvement is not nearly so clear. Acknowledging the definitional difficulties, in this report we take community involvement to refer to those activities that allow community people to know about the program and to exert influence upon the decisions that shape it and affect its operation.

Although the community is represented on the Council through the membership of local people, their presence does not guarantee further community involvement. In the absence of a specific design for involvement, the SCC might be incorporated into the school system to the relative exclusion of nonschool people. Federal program guidelines encouraged extensive involvement but left the question of how this was to be accomplished to the discretion of the SCC. In this chapter we have summarized some of the information which indicates the nature and extent of that involvement.

The newly formed Councils faced many organizational problems in their early phase of operation, many of which have been resolved in various ways. This chapter, except where noted, covers the circumstances that existed following program installation, i.e., the period from June 1972 through September 1973.

Access to School/Community Council Meetings

The School/Community Council was established as the executive organization responsible for policy-making and overall administrative control of the local Urban/Rural program. Its meetings, which bring together persons with diverse backgrounds, skills, interests, and experiences, are important not only as business sessions but as forums for the exchange of ideas and the dissemination of information. Although both school and community Council members have often had only limited experience with either educational bureaucracy or curricular alternatives, the teachers' familiarity with the local educational system gives them a clear advantage in Council deliberations. Community members must often develop an expertise in these areas in order to be able to make informed decisions to establish parity with school staff representatives. SCC meetings

serve an important training function; if the educational benefits of these meetings are to be fully realized by the larger community, access to them should be encouraged. Involvement by community members in addition to those on the SCC could demonstrate support for community representatives on the Council and assist in community understanding and acceptance of educational change within the school. Parity between school and community means, at the very least, that members of either group should have equal access to program information and the opportunity to participate in program activities.

Access to SCC meetings is indicated, in our data, by these features of the SCC operations: meeting location, frequency, and openness; attendance; and publicity given to the meetings and to the SCC.

Location of SCC Meetings

The question of where SCC meetings were to be held was one of the first decisions facing the newly formed Councils. In addition to the usual consideration of suitable facilities, many SCCs also sought to meet in locations that would encourage public attendance.

Regular SCC meetings are held at each of the Urban/Rural sites, and at the majority of sites the Council meets in the school (see Table 4.1). Typically one of the larger rooms, such as the library or cafeteria, is used, although one urban site has chosen to conduct its business from the Board of Education offices located several miles from the Urban/Rural school.

Table 4.1

Place of School/Community Council Meetings by Area (percentages)

Area	School-based	Community-based
Urban	75	25
Rural	45	55
Total	61	39

At three of the urban sites and six of the rural sites, meetings are conducted apart from school facilities, often in buildings that have been renovated by the SCC to provide space for both training and SCC meetings. Store-front offices have been established at four sites, and their distance from the school serves both to symbolically identify the independence of the program and also to provide a convenient drop-in center for interested residents and teachers. Faced with similar goals and an absence of suitable structures, two rural sites have purchased mobile homes and another two have designed and built their own buildings.

Frequency of SCC Meetings

Frequency of meetings is one indication of the opportunity available for SCC members to deliberate and take action. In the absence of meetings, decisions tend to be made by staff or other authorities in the school. Access and frequency of meetings are thus related.

The majority of rural Councils meet biweekly in contrast to the majority of urban Councils, whose meetings are scheduled monthly (see Table 4.2). Committee work continues during the period between meetings, with most Council members serving on one or more of those smaller groups. The only meetings to which nonmembers may have ready access are those of the full council.

Table 4.2

Frequency of School/Community Council Meetings by Area (percentages)

Area	Weekly	Biweekly	Monthly
Urban	8	42	50
Rural	9	64	27
Total	9	52	39

Openness of SCC Meetings

Nearly all of the SCC meetings are conducted in public; that is, the meetings are open to anyone who may wish to attend. This is true at 91 percent of the total number of sites: 83 percent of the urban sites and all of the rural ones. Only eight of the sites, however, are noteworthy for the number of visitors that they have attracted. As for the rationale for closed meetings, one Team Manager expressed it as follows:

> You couldn't possibly have a meeting where you'd open up all the issues to the general public. When we fight among ourselves, that's one thing, but to get in an open meeting and fight among ourselves is another thing. We fight among ourselves privately, but to the community we present a kind of united front, which is the way it has to be.

Member Attendance

Most of the Councils have been able to sustain participation by Council members. SCC minutes and interviews conducted at the sites show that only 13 percent of the Councils have been plagued by quorum problems (17% of urban sites and 9% of rural sites). Where this problem has occurred, however, it is chronic. Necessary business has often been postponed because of an absence of voting members. There is no evidence that quorum difficulties can be attributed to the absence of members from one group rather than the other.

Council members are reimbursed for babysitting and other necessary expenses, and in addition most Councils (urban, 83%; rural, 82%; total, 83%) pay members for attendance at meetings, anywhere from $2.50 per hour to $15.00 per meeting. The position taken by most Councils has changed over time and several that did pay members no longer do, while others started such payments nearly a year after the Council was formed.

Publicity of SCC Meetings

Of the 23 Councils, 18 publicize the time and location of SCC meetings. Publicity has become a major concern of several Councils. Newsletters, designed both to provide information about the program and to encourage increased community participation, have been distributed by most Councils (urban, 83%; rural, 64%; total, 74%), but few have prospered.

Only the publications from six sites have appeared with regularity. Rather than generate their own materials, most SCCs have turned to locally established media. Over half of the sites indicate that they have made extensive use of radio, TV, and newspaper coverage. One site has produced a 16mm film for local and national distribution that highlights the achievements of a summer training program, and another has contracted for program coverage by the local cable TV station.

Publicity can, however, be the source of unreasonable expectations, and several sites limited coverage during the first year of operation, as explained by one of the Team Managers:

> We've got an extremely low profile here, and that is just as it should be. One of the biggest weaknesses that you can get into in education is to call the papers in, or do it yourself, and constantly say what you're going to do. . . . The only thing that you should ever tell the papers is what you did and, of course, we haven't really done too much that is useful yet.

This review of some of the characteristics of SCC meetings points out several of the ways an SCC can encourage greater communication within its school and community constituency. There is, it appears, a greater tendency at the rural sites to conduct the program so as to encourage community involvement. For example, rural SCCs are more likely to hold their meetings in community facilities located away from the school. Their meetings, which are generally held more often, are also more often open than are those at the urban sites and have been less troubled by attendance problems. Urban and rural sites do not differ in the policies that have been adopted about the payment of members for attendance at SCC meetings; these payments, however, seem to have little impact upon other aspects of SCC operations. Interestingly, those sites that have had difficulty in attracting a quorum are also among those that pay their SCC members. Most sites have used several informational media, but the urban sites have produced more newsletters. This is not surprising in view of the much larger communities that the urban SCCs must inform.

The Organizational Continuity of the SCC

The Urban/Rural program at each of the sites is subject to the scrutiny of those whom the SCC members represent. The lasting success that

the SCC can achieve at the site will depend upon the credibility and confidence it inspires in a significant portion of the teacher staff and the residents from the surrounding community.

Community confidence is facilitated by situations in which community representatives on the SCC are in a position to influence the direction of the program. One indicator of such influence is the degree to which community members hold leadership positions on the Council; another is the willingness of community members to serve and to continue to serve. Community continuity on and leadership in the SCC therefore have possible implications for involvement of the extended community.

SCC Membership Turnover

By September 1973, the School/Community Councils had been in operation for an average of 25 months. Urban SCCs maintained larger membership during that period (see Table 4.3). It is apparent that the total

Table 4.3

Average Number of School/Community Council Members per Site by Area

Area	Original Members	Members as of September 1973	Percentage of Original Members Still Serving	Total Members Since Formation
Urban	29.5	28.5	44.9%	45.8
Rural	20.5	19.6	42.4	32.3
Total	25.2	24.3	43.6	39.3

number of people who have been members is considerably greater than the membership at any given time. Membership turnover has occurred naturally, and there is no evidence at any of the sites of multiple resignations having been employed as a protest. None of the Councils have retained their entire original membership.

SCC Membership Tenure

Table 4.4 compares the tenure of school and community representatives

Table 4.4

Average Tenure of School and Community SCC Members by Area

Area	Community Representatives	School Representatives
Urban	14.8 months	16.3 months
Rural	17.4	17.7
Total	16.0	17.0

on the SCC. The data indicate that whereas in both urban and rural sites school representatives have experienced a longer tenure, the difference is smaller at the rural sites. Consistent with the stronger community orientation at the rural sites, representatives from both school and community tend to stay on the Council longer at the rural sites. The number of rural sites with community tenure greater than school tenure also exceeds the number of urban sites, four rural and three urban. Seven urban sites have had longer tenure of school representatives; five rural sites and four urban sites have had the same tenure for both groups. Although one urban site records an 11-month advantage for school representatives, the difference between the two groups is three months or less at 17 sites.

The fact that the tenure of school and community representatives is similar at nearly all of the sites indicates that community representatives believe that membership on the Council is worthwhile. If community input were interpreted by SCC members to be only a token gesture, the discrepancy between school and community tenure would probably be far greater.

SCC Chairperson

An indication of the confidence that community members have in the SCCs is the percentage of time that community people have served as SCC chairperson: overall this has been 64 percent; 58 percent at urban sites and 71 percent at rural sites. Council chairpersons are elected by their colleagues on the Council, and it is significant that for nearly two-thirds (64%) of the program duration a community representative has had this leadership position. The readiness of community members to assume the additional tasks and responsibilities of chairing the SCC shows, in our view, a sense of personal effectiveness as SCC members and a commitment to program goals. At 11 of the sites (5 urban and 6 rural), all chairpersons have been community representatives. In contrast, at 4 of the sites (3 urban and 1 rural) community representatives have never served as chairpersons. It should also be noted that at the rural sites community members have served as chairpersons for a greater percentage of time than at urban sites.

Prior to September 1973, 49 persons had served as SCC chairpersons, 24 at urban sites and 25 at rural sites. (See Appendix C for information on chairpersons.) Table 4.5 shows the groups within the Council

Table 4.5

Groups Represented by SCC Chairpersons
by Area
(percentages)

Area	Community	School/ Administrator	School/ Teacher	School/ Paraprofessional
Urban	63	0	33	4
Rural	72	12	12	4
Total	67	6	22	4

that these people represent. The fact that 67 percent of the SCC chairpersons have been community representatives contrasts sharply with the 6 percent who have been drawn from the ranks of school administrators.

Of the total of 49 SCC chairpersons, 22 percent have been women. The sites have averaged just over two chairpersons each from the formation of the Councils to September 1973.

Table 4.6 shows various characteristics of those who have served as SCC chairpersons. There is a high percentage of parents and a lack of emphasis given to educational credentials. The tenure figures suggest a certain amount of flexibility in terms of changes in leadership.

Table 4.6

Educational Characteristics of SCC Chairpersons by Area

Area	Percentage with BA or Above	Percentage with High School Diploma	Percentage Who Are Parents	Average Tenure (in months)
Urban	38%	62%	41%	12.0
Rural	52	48	72	11.2
Total	45	55	57	11.6

The SCC chairpersons occupy responsible leadership positions in the local Urban/Rural programs and serve without compensation beyond that received by other SCC members. As the above discussion indicates, the sites generally have selected community people to fill this post, a situation which gives legitimacy to community input and a community orientation to the SCC. The community interests that these SCC chairpersons represent provide the program with important information about the local circumstances and encourage wider participation through demonstrated credibility.

School/Community Council Staff

Just as the decisions made by the SCC regarding the procedures for meetings and the election of community representatives to leadership positions imply a particular stance with implications for community involvement, the selection of a School Development Team Manager (SDTM) also bears on the question of parity. Since Team Managers are responsible for

the day-to-day implementation of Urban/Rural activities and training programs, their experience with and sensitivity toward the community have a strong effect on the operationalization of parity.

The role of the SCC is specified in the Program Information Document:

> As the primary policy-making body of the Urban/Rural SDP project, the School/Community Council has a crucial role. It must select a School Development Team Manager.[1]

The importance of this selection arises from the definition of the Team Manager as the person "responsible for the development and implementation of the entire program."[2] This section will review the results of the selections through a presentation of descriptive information about both the School Development Team Managers and any support staff that may have been employed to further the program goals.

Whereas the School/Community Council is expected to be responsible for overall program policy, the administrative responsibility is assigned to the School Development Team Manager. The influence that the Team Manager could develop within the program and the necessity for an unusual blend of expertise both in education and community affairs was recognized by most SCCs, several of which initiated a national search for their Team Manager.

School Development Team Managers have been employed at each of the 23 sites, and before September 1973 only three sites had experienced any turnover. (See Appendix D for information on SDTMs.) Of the 27 managers that have been hired, 85 percent have a background in public education, generally both as a classroom teacher and in an administrative capacity within the school system. Nearly half (urban, 43%; rural, 54%; total, 48%) were residents of the Urban/Rural site prior to their employment by the SCC. Almost all of the Team Managers (93%) have a BA or above, including two with PhD's.

Although it is difficult to assess accurately the relative power of the Team Managers vis-à-vis the Council, there is little evidence that

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[1] "1970 Program Information," p. 12

[2] Ibid., p. 13.

the advantages of their education and experience have enabled their views to dominate those of the Council. The following comment on the SCC by one of the Team Managers is illustrative, if not typical, of the situation that exists at some of the sites:

> They still have extremely strong control. They have total direction over me. If they pass a motion saying that next week I'll spend four days over at the _____ County Board of Education office interviewing their personnel, I'd be there four days. It's total. And if they say they want a particular kind of program and I'm to set it up, I set it up.

At other sites the Team Managers have assumed or been granted greater latitude in defining their authority, and their influence is often considerable even while operating within the constraints established by the Council.

School-Community Coordinators

In addition to their role in implementing training programs, several Team Managers have been delegated responsibility for community involvement, and have recruited school-community coordinators. A typical job announcement from one of the sites lists the following duties of the coordinators:

1. Establishes programs for all community-school related activties.
2. Promotes, publicizes, and interprets all programs to the school staff and community.
3. Conducts surveys and makes personnel visits in the community to learn the educational needs of the community.
4. Establishes rapport with lay leaders in the community (business, religious, and social).

That the position of school-community coordinator does not appear in the federal guidelines undoubtedly accounts for the fact that few SCCs have utilized Urban/Rural funds for this purpose. SCC staff members not directly associated with training activities are often limited to secretarial duties. Only 30 percent of the sites (36% urban and 25% rural) have hired staff members specifically to ensure community involvement.

The fact that School/Community Council members have often felt most deficient in the areas of educational methodology and bureaucratic processes has prompted the Councils to retain the service of persons with the requisite experience. The responsibility for community involvement has, at the majority of sites, been assumed by the Council itself--both through the design of training programs that incorporate community people as participants or resource consultants and through neighborhood activities of individual Council members. The priorities evident in staff selection have not, however, been entirely of the SCCs making since the initial task facing the Council, that of writing a proposal for the Office of Education, emphasized technical skills over community development skills.

Decision-Making Capabilities of the SCC

The influence and authority of the SCC grew out of the procedures and activities initiated by the local Urban/Rural program. At almost every site, there were a minimum of vested interests involved in the organization and structure of the Council. The program originated in Washington and did not represent the desires of any local interest group and therefore did not have any previously developed political influence within the local educational system. The authority and effectiveness of the SCC had to come from the program rather than from connections with an existing political unit, agency, or community organization. It is thus important to ask whether the SCCs were able to develop and maintain a significant degree of autonomy over the direction of the program.

There were groups at each site in a position to interfere with the autonomy of the SCC. In the negotiations that established the program at a given site, at least two agencies (the local school board and the state education agency) had to agree to proposed plans before the program could begin. In some sites, sign-off power also was granted to the teachers' union and the Model Cities agency. Perhaps the concept of community participation and parity at that time was sufficiently compelling to deter any inclination these agencies might have had to take advantage of the vulnerability of a new program. It is also possible that they saw the program as no real threat to their own interests and were inclined to leave it alone. In some sites, they may have regarded the

goals of the program as supporting their own. In any case, the combined advantages of protection and funds from the Office of Education, the assistance of Regional Coordinators and local community organizers of the LTI (Field Facilitators), and the general appeal of the idea of community participation have been enough to make a significant degree of autonomy possible.

Opportunities for outside interference in the legitimate affairs of the SCC are also built into the design of the program. Continuation proposals prepared by the Council for submission to the Office of Education must be approved by the LEA and, where applicable, the local Model Cities agency (one rural site and all urban sites are located within a Model Cities area). Cash flow is controlled by the fiscal department of the LEA, and all Urban/Rural debts must be referred to that office for payment.

Other considerations sometimes seem to constrict the autonomy and innovative scope of the program. For example, at some urban sites where the program is located within only a few of the system's schools, the LEA seemed to inhibit the program lest the excluded school staffs complain of the preferential treatment of their colleagues. In a few districts, the program conflicted with other projects that already had high priority. There were, then, suitable conditions and ample opportunities for local administrative units to restrain and limit the Urban/Rural program.

Although such restraint did occur, it was not typical. When questioned about outside interference with SCC deliberations and activities that have resulted in problems for the program, participants at only 22 percent of the sites indicated that such intrusion existed. This problem was more evident at the urban sites (33% as opposed to 9% at rural sites), which is not surprising given the complexity of the urban educational infrastructure.

In each case where outside interference was cited as an impediment to program implementation, the source identified was the LEA. Although both the Model Cities agency and the State Education Agency (SEA) have legitimate roles within the guidelines established by OE, neither group

has exerted its influence to the detriment of the program, and at most of the sites they have virtually removed themselves from Urban/Rural activities.

In addition to direct administrative interference with the program, there are, of course, opportunities for more subtle types of influence and control. Even though the Urban/Rural program generally exists in an atmosphere of noninterference and sometimes strong support, this does not necessarily mean that the SCC has acquired the capability to make decisions and do the planning required to produce a vigorous program. The data related to SCC decision-making, therefore, are indicators of the degree of autonomy developed by the individual Councils.

The figures presented in Table 4.7 were derived from the minutes of School/Community Council meetings. Decisions made at those meetings

Table 4.7

Average Number of School/Community Council Meetings and Decisions by Area

Area	Meetings	Decisions per Meeting	Zero-Decision Meetings
Urban	16.0	2.0	5.2
Rural	25.5	3.6	2.6
Total	21.5	2.8	3.9

during the period from June 1972 through May 1973 were tabulated for that time period.[3] These data reveal significant differences between the urban and rural Councils; the latter typically met more often, made more decisions, and had fewer meetings at which no decisions were made.

A further indicator of autonomy is evident in the degree of influence SCCs have had in hiring program personnel. A considerable portion of each SCC's budget is available for salaries, both for the SCC staff and for the many resource people and consultants employed to conduct training

[3] All decisions were counted with the exception of those relating to the acceptance of the minutes from the previous meeting and the motion to adjourn.

programs. The decisions on whom to hire legitimately belongs to the Council, but a review of the SCC minutes indicates that several Councils have had minimal input into such decisions. Although 12 (six urban and six rural) of the 23 SCCs appear to have been actively involved in the writing of job specifications and the screening of applicants, the remaining 11 apparently have had little to say about the selection of employees.

A third indicator is found in evidence of SCC control over the selection of educational programs. SCC minutes reveal that a majority of sites (seven urban and five rural) appear to have accepted and funded programs submitted to them by universities, research organizations, and private consulting firms after minimal debate at SCC meetings. This did not necessarily bring in inadequate educational programs, but it does indicate that decisions in these areas are being made outside the Council.

In this chapter we have limited ourselves to a consideration of those locally designed procedures and practices likely to influence community involvement and common to most sites. Few of the criteria discussed here are normally identified with educational programs. The unique character of the Urban/Rural program comes not from the significant variations that exist between sites but from the apparent emphasis on community involvement evident at the majority of sites. The importance of the indicators presented here, along with those discussed in the previous chapter, can best be determined through their collective impact on the design of training programs--the primary task of the SCC.

CHAPTER 5

TRAINING ACTIVITIES

> When we see a particular need we feel that it is very unlikely that anybody has already designed exactly what it is we need. We'd much rather have somebody look at our particular situation and call for something geared more for us. We've kind of stayed away from the program things and pre-written things. We bring in people cold and we try to acquaint them with our problems and say "Now, what would you suggest that we do right here?" --and it's worked fairly well.
>
> School Development Team Manager

Although Urban/Rural was established under legislation drafted primarily to train educational personnel (EPDA, 1968), OE planners sought, through the imposition of a new decision-making body with assured community involvement, to tie teacher training to systemic change. The fact that the training design was to be locally derived from the new school-community relationship distinguished Urban/Rural from prior federal teacher training programs.

The School/Community Councils were set up to bring about educational change, but the fundable options available to them were limited to those activities that could be defined as training. We have already examined the composition and operating style of the SCCs and in this chapter will describe the training programs that have been undertaken, together with the differences in priorities that are related to the varying degrees of community involvement on the Councils. The specific concerns of this chapter are the nature of the training activities funded by the SCCs and the degree to which their design and implementation have been influenced by community participation within the local program.

During the first months of the program most SCCs were preoccupied with the administrative and organization problems associated with becoming operational, and training designs formulated during this period were often tentative and written to satisfy USOE's requirement that a proposal be submitted to them within a few months after the first SCC meeting.

The information presented here, therefore, is drawn from an examination of the training activities that took place between June 1, 1972, and June 1, 1973. Data were gathered from on-site interviews, the proposals submitted to OE by the sites, and the "Training Sessions" forms (see Appendix B).

As mentioned, individual sites were responsible for the decisions about the types of training that were to be conducted. This resulted in considerable diversity among the sites, of course, but it also gave the program a local orientation and sense of responsibility in keeping with the spirit of community participation in the planning and implementation stages. It is possible, without specifying program content, to identify several conditions which seem to indicate that a training program is operating within the context of a collaborative school/community relationship. In general terms, such a training program would identify and utilize the educational resources available in both the school and the community. (An example might be the employment of local citizens to provide school staff members with information about the community and its unique qualities.) Training would take place at the local school or in the community, and participation would not be limited to members of any particular group. The total training package would include activities that would help SCC members develop the educational and organizational skills necessary for the drafting and implementation of training programs. Such training would both lessen dependence on educational entrepreneurs and help to demystify the educational enterprise.

Ideally, each SCC was to make an assessment of the local educational needs and devise a plan for training that would be directly related to these needs. In a general sense, the needs were similar--student achievement was relatively low in all of the Urban/Rural schools. The SCCs, however, saw this problem and its related facets in quite different ways and defined the needs of their school-community system in terms that often reflected their own sense of local problems and of possible approaches to solutions.

The flexibility of the program together with the message that the sites were to address their unique needs, resulted in a wide variety of

training activities. These varied in almost every conceivable way--length of training program, location of training activities, type of personnel involved, content, type of staff engaged to conduct the training, and cost. Although any system for categorizing training programs of such diversity will conceal much of the unique character of the activities that were conducted, it is worthwhile to try to summarize, even in a general way, the training activities that were developed to serve the needs of the 23 sites. The following criteria were developed for program identification. The letters and numbers are keyed to the rows and columns in Figures 5.1 and 5.2.

Format of the Training Program

A. Formal Class: Instruction conducted in a classroom setting either on- or off-site and normally involving academic credit when an institution of higher education is the source of expertise.

B. Seminar, Workshop: Short-term training conducted on-site without academic credit and often with a limited objective.

C. Trip, Conference, Other: Visitations to educational resources including both public conferences and those specifically designed to meet U/R needs. (Exemplary and demonstration educational programs have been visited by site participants and both U/R and other educational conferences have been attended.)

Source of Expertise

1. Institution of Higher Education: Includes all assistance provided as a result of a contractual agreement between the SCC and a college or university.

2. Private Consultant: Includes both individuals and private consulting firms.

3. Government Agency: This category includes OE, SEA, LEA, LTI, and the Bureau of Indian Affairs (BIA).

4. SCC, Other: Training programs conducted by the SCC members or staff.

Content of Training Program

D. Academic: Focus on teaching skills applicable to the needs of public education but not specific to the unique circumstances at the site.

E. School-Community Interface: Training directed to the development skills necessary for U/R program implementation and mutual understanding between school and community.

F. Community Oriented: Emphasis on information and techniques designed to translate the local situation into educationally relevant programs, i.e., Black studies, Chicano studies, Indian education, bicultural education, local history, etc.

Target Population

Although the primary target population was identified for each training program from the following three groups, members from the other groups were often encouraged to attend.

5. School Staff.
6. School/Community Council members and staff.
7. Community at large.

Two matrices were developed. The first (see Figure 5.1) is an intersect of the type or format of the training program with the source of

Figure 5.1

Intersect of Type or Format of Training Program with Source of Expertise or Instruction

Format of Training Program	Source of Expertise or Instruction				
	Institution of Higher Education	Private Consultant	Governmental Agency	SCC, Other	
Formal Class					A
Seminar, Workshop					B
Trip, Conference, Other					C
	1	2	3	4	

technical assistance or expertise. The second (see Figure 5.2) is an intersect of program content with the primary target population. These two matrices permit us to develop a rough categorization of each of the 490 reported programs.

Figure 5.2

Intersect of Content of Training Program with Target Population

Content of Training Program	Primary Target Population			
	School Staff	SCC	Community	
Academic				D
School-Community Interface				E
Community Oriented				F
	5	6	7	

An additional tally was made of the extent to which there was community participation in activities where the school staff or the SCC was the primary target of the training program.

The distribution of training activities for all sites along these various dimensions is shown in Table 5.1. As might be expected, there is considerable variation both in the number of activities and the type of activities conducted. The figures for all Urban/Rural-sponsored training point out that the bulk of the programs (62%) have been directed to school staff members and that a majority of the programs (53%) have utilized the workshop or seminar format. Formal classes (23%) have been used less. Less than half (46%) of the training has been of a strictly academic nature and nearly one third (30%) has dealt with site-specific educational and cultural concerns. The sites have tended to rely on private consultants (35%) and colleges and universities (32%) for technical assistance.

In line with the breakdown of data into urban and rural areas, Table 5.1 also presents the distribution of training activities by these two major categories. There are several notable features in this contrast between Urban/Rural sites. Percentage differences among program types between urban and rural sites are most evident in the format of

Table 5.1

Distribution of Types of Training Programs by Format, Source, Content, and Target

Type of Program	Urban		Rural		Total	
	%	N	%	N	%	N
Format						
Formal Class	19	44	26	68	23	112
Workshop or Seminar	62	142	45	118	53	260
Conference/Trip	18	42	29	76	24	118
Expertise Source						
Institution of Higher Education	28	63	36	94	32	157
Private Consultant	40	91	31	82	35	173
Government Agency	18	42	21	55	20	97
Self - SCC	14	32	12	31	13	63
Content						
Academic	52	118	42	109	46	227
School/Community Interface	26	60	22	58	24	117
Community Specific	22	51	36	95	30	146
Target Population						
School Staff	64	145	60	158	62	303
SCC	29	67	28	73	29	140
Community	7	16	12	31	10	47

training sessions; urban sites have conducted 17 percent more seminars and workshops than have rural sites. Rural sites have relied on both trips and conferences and formal classes to a greater degree than the urban sites (a difference of 11 and 7 percent respectively). Program content has been more site-specific at rural sites. The urban sites have placed greater emphasis on academic programs and, to a lesser degree, on the problems of school/community interface. The source of expertise drawn upon by both urban and rural sites reflects the overall priorities, although rural sites have tended to draw more heavily on institutions of higher education and governmental agencies. Likewise there is little difference between urban and rural sites in the primary target populations selected for training programs, although it is noteworthy that the rural sites have placed more emphasis on programs specifically for local community members than have urban sites.

Perhaps the most important question of this survey is whether there exists a relationship between the degree of community participation and the type or format of training programs developed. An indicator of such a relationship would be the extent to which parity and representativeness have been achieved and the Council's implementation of procedures to ensure community involvement. In order to answer this question, criteria were identified which could be used to draw up a general Index of Community Input. This Index is based upon the indicators described in preceding chapters. The various indicators are weighted according to a scheme that represents the authors' bias about the significance of the indicator in reflecting community input. These criteria and the weightings given to each are presented in Table 5.2. The possible range of scores on the Index of Community Input is 4 to 31, with a median score of 17.5. The distribution of urban and rural sites is shown in Table 5.3. Of central interest, however, is the comparison between sites of relatively greater community input and those with less than average input. To facilitate such comparison, the 23 sites were divided into two groups, the ten sites with a total score of 18 or better being identified as those with greater community involvement, and the 13 sites with less than a total score of 18 identified as having less community involvement. The distribution of their activities along the lines of the two matrices described earlier is shown in Table 5.4.

The point of these data is quite clear. Those sites with greater community input have produced programs that differ in nature and are directed to a different population than those with relatively less community input. Sites with greater community input devoted a smaller percentage (21%) of their training activities to formal classes than did those sites with a lesser degree of community input (25%) and instead tended to design programs with a seminar or trip and conference format. The difference between the two groups takes on added significance when program content is considered. The sites with less community input lead in the emphasis that they have placed on academic subject matter--56 percent, or 17 percent more than those sites with greater community input. The problems of school/community interface and community specific educational

Table 5.2

Criteria and Weightings for Indicators of Community Involvement

	Criteria	Weighting	
1.	Location of SCC Meetings	Community	1
		School	0
2.	Frequency of SCC Meetings	Weekly	3
		Bimonthly	2
		Monthly	1
3.	Openness of SCC Meetings to Public	Yes	2
		No	0
4.	Publication of SCC Newsletter	Yes	1
		No	0
5.	Proportion of Time Community Representative Served as SCC Chairman	80 - 100%	3
		40 - 79	2
		0 - 39	0
6.	Average Tenure of SCC Membership Greater for School or Community	Community	3
		Same	2
		School	1
7.	Community Membership of Original Council	60 - 100%	4
		51 - 59	3
		41 - 50	2
		31 - 40	1
		0 - 30	0
8.	Community Membership of Council in September, 1973	(same as #7)	
9.	Education of SCC Community Members, Not High School Graduates	50 - 100%	2
		25 - 49	1
		0 - 24	0
10.	Education of SCC Community Members, BA or above	0%	2
		1 - 10	1
		11 - 100	0
11.	Occupation of SCC Community Members, Professional, Technical, or Managerial	0 - 19%	1
		20 - 100	0
12.	Parents among SCC Community Members	0 - 84%	3
		85 - 100	2
13.	Females among SCC Community Members	30 - 70%	1
		other	0
14.	Employment of School/Community Coordinator	Yes	1
		No	0

Table 5.3

Distribution, Range, and Median
of Community Involvement Scores
by Site and by Area
(possible range, 4-31)

Scores of Urban Sites	Scores of Rural Sites
22	25
22	24
20	21
18	20
17	19
15	19
14	17
14	17
14	17
13	13
12	11
11	
Range: 11-22	Range: 11-25
Median: 14.5	Median: 19

concerns received greater attention (by 14%) where there was greater community involvement. Although over 60 percent of the programs were directed to school staff members, there is a marked difference between the content emphasized in this training by the two groups, as illustrated in Figure 5.3 Sites with greater community input gave higher priority to both the local situation and the need for improved school/community relations.

Table 5.4

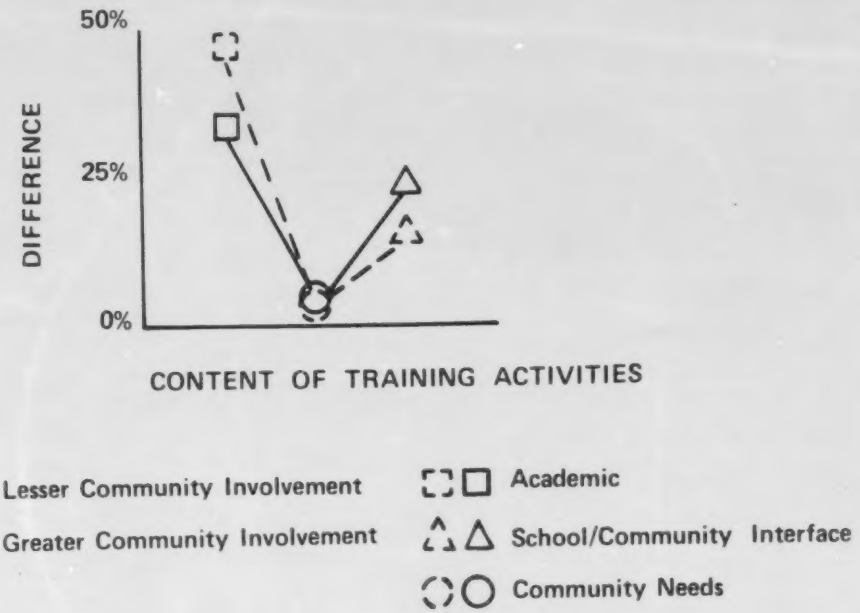
Distribution of Types of Training Programs
(June 1, 1972, to June 1, 1973)

Type of Training	Sites with Greater Community Involvement	Sites with Lesser Community Involvement
	Format of Training Program	
Formal Classes Conducted by:		
Institutions of Higher Education	21%	20%
Private Consultants	0	4
Government Agency	0	1
Subtotal	21 (N= 59)	25 (N= 53)
Seminars or Workshops Conducted by:		
Institutions of Higher Education	10	9
Private Consultants	24	22
Government Agency	10	14
SCC	9	7
Subtotal	53 (N=150)	52 (N=110)
Trip or Conference Session Conducted by:		
Institutions of Higher Education	1	2
Private Consultants	8	14
Government Agency	9	5
SCC	7	2
Subtotal	25 (N= 69)	23 (N= 49)
TOTAL	99% (N=278)	100% (N=212)
	Content of Training Program	
Academic, Aimed at:		
School Staff	33%	47%
SCC Members and Staff	5	4
Community	1	5
Subtotal	39 (N=110)	56 (N=117)
School/Community Interface, Aimed at:		
School Staff	4	3
SCC Members and Staff	17	19
Community	4	0
Subtotal	25 (N= 70)	22 (N= 47)
Community Specific, Aimed at:		
School Staff	23	15
SCC Members and Staff	5	7
Community	6	1
Subtotal	34 (N= 98)	23 (N= 48)
TOTAL	98% (N=278)	101% (N=212)

Note: The percentages differ from 100 because of rounding. N = number of programs.

Figure 5.3

Content of Training Activities Directed toward School Staff at Sites with Greater and Lesser Community Involvement



Community involvement in the design of training programs is also evident in the number of activities specifically directed to community members. Sites with greater involvement had community residents as the target population in 11 percent of the programs--5 percent more than sites without such input. Further analysis of the data reveals that the former group of sites had community members as participants at 35 percent of the training activities that were not specifically designed for them. This participation by local residents in training activities is indicative of community orientation. At sites with less community input, only 18 percent of all training activities were attended by community members.

Some examples may give a better idea of what this means in terms of specific activities. One of the sites, noted for its community involvement, established a visitation program that permitted a team comprised of a teacher, a paraprofessional, a student, and a parent to visit an innovative school of their choice for one week. The differing perspectives provided by this group were available to the SCC upon their return

and led to implementation of both curricular and administrative changes in the local school. Another site has directed a considerable portion of its activities to the local citizenry with the idea of training them to become certified teachers in the school. Local people are taking courses toward a BA degree in facilities provided by the local school and under the direction of a professor recruited from a regional college. This arrangement has been adopted at three rural sites and brings the resources of the college to the local school and community in addition to providing the university personnel with valuable hands-on experience. One Team Manager, reflecting on the impact that this new procedure has had, reported:

> A real good spin-off has been that the area college here is changing their policies on a lot of ideas and they say they have learned more from Urban/Rural than we have learned from them, and what they like is the way in which the community is being involved in the planning of the educational program.

Still another site with strong community input has requested all visiting consultants to make an evening presentation to the community following their work with the teachers during the school day. Many of these sites have invited interested community members to accompany SCC and teacher delegations to educational conferences. Although there is, of course, a great variety among sites in both categories of community input, sites with a stronger community emphasis have generally tended to adapt a broader definition of training.

Training programs established by SCCs with less community input have often adhered to a more traditional format, typically placing a premium on university courses (often conducted away from the site) and academic credit. There is often little to distinguish either the content or the format of such training from that being undertaken by other teachers not associated with the Urban/Rural program.

While it is not possible to assess the impact of the individual training programs that have been designed and implemented, it is clear that Urban/Rural has enabled teacher training to be conducted with a new regard for the local setting. The evidence indicates that the inclusion of community members on the Councils and the invitation extended by the Council to the larger community have, where present, had an impact on the style, content, and direction of training.

CHAPTER 6

SUMMARY OF RESULTS AND CONCLUSIONS

The Urban/Rural School Development Program was an ambitious, perhaps idealistic, attempt to demonstrate the viability of a collaborative effort between schools and communities to develop educational programs that will meet local educational needs. Designed with an awareness that low-income communities have had neither necessary educational resources nor a significant voice in educational policy-making, the program acknowledges that the responsibility for planning in education must be shared by school staff and community. The central concept of the program was parity. The attempt to establish a parity relationship was the most daring and venturesome feature of the program.

Community involvement and participation has often been problematic. The relationship between schools and their communities are especially unstable when the community and school staff begin to develop an active partnership in the educational process. The Urban/Rural program sought to infuse the educational system with a more complete knowledge of the values and the experiences of children from the community and with more information about the specific educational needs of the area. For this task, community input is needed, since knowledge about the culture of the local communities was often not a part of the formal training of the teaching staff. A parity relationship between school and community establishes a forum for mutual education about local viewpoints and needs of both residents and teachers.

Joint policy formulation by school and community members of the SCC is a viable possibility in the long run if the relative contributions of the two parties are recognized. One of the most important aspects of the program, then, was to elevate the status of the community members to a point at which their values and opinions in areas of educational planning could be heard and respected. The program also gave them a route through which to express their views and a legitimacy which encouraged participation. Parity provided the mechanism for this input and legitimacy and is therefore a valid prior step to subsequent planning.

In the light of Urban/Rural's unique contribution to school-community relations, i.e., parity, the results of the program are especially significant. They have been presented in more detailed form in previous chapters but may be usefully summarized here. They are:

1. Parity between the community and school has been achieved at most of the Urban/Rural sites. The data presented in Chapters 3 and 4 on the composition of the SCC and the participation of community members in leadership positions on the Council seem to us to demonstrate that parity in a numerical and organizational sense is a workable concept for a joint school/community organization. It is true that financial support from an outside source facilitated the decisions by the local educational authorities to extend a measure of autonomy to the SCC, but there seems to be no reason that funds for special programs or other arrangements could not be made available by schools and school districts to engage the community in comparable joint efforts. Perhaps the example of Urban/Rural may make it possible for communities themselves to persuade the local school board that more specific community power in program planning is needed. In any case, once there is sufficient determination from a source with strength, parity can be made a reality in program planning and administration.

2. The program has involved persons who represent a cross-section of the community population. The importance of this finding can scarcely be overestimated. In community participation programs, a major hazard is that community members who are atypical in that they have special educational or professional backgrounds will be chosen to represent the community. It is apparent that this need not happen and that citizens who are more nearly typical of the community can bring valuable resources to the school through participation and can develop the necessary competencies to deal with the special tasks of educational planning. This should not be seen as a threat to the professional educator. It means, in our view, that the community can adequately perform its functions and not be preempted in those parts of the educational process that justly belong with the families of the children who are being educated and with the community at large.

3. Despite the similarities of funding and a common set of guidelines, vast differences emerged among the sites in their program development and in the success with which their councils were representative and achieved parity. This finding is not surprising, but it is an important one, since it permits us to look for conditions in the local site or in the way the program was introduced to the site that may help explain the intersite differences in the degree of community input and participation. Our survey did not permit gathering the types of data that would give firm information about the elements affecting the success of the goals of parity and representativeness at the different sites, but we do have some more speculative conclusions to draw, which are developed later.

4. The degree of community input at a site affects the design of training activities. The initial goal was to establish an organizational framework in which innovative or at least different educational training could occur. The premise of the program planners and of the Stanford Leadership Training Institute was that input from the community would change the nature of the training process. This was indeed the case. Sites at which community input was relatively high included more community-oriented training for the school faculty and staff than did those where input was relatively low. Low community-input sites tended to rely more on formal instructional programs and to include community members in their training programs less often. Since one of the goals of Urban/Rural was to bring to the educational process more information about the needs of the local community so that the experience of the children in the school could be more congruent with their outside-of-school lives, the achievement of this goal seems to us to represent a significant accomplishment by the sites which established greater citizen participation.

Conclusions

The results of an evaluative survey of a program with the complexity and diversity of the Urban/Rural effort can be stated in terms ranging anywhere from descriptive and factual to impressionistic and speculative. The information gathered in the course of this survey allows us to report some findings that are based on fairly adequate data. These need to be

placed in a context that the results themselves do not properly include, and it seems appropriate to summarize some of the conclusions that we draw from the data. These conclusions are influenced in part by direct experience with the program and from the reports that members of the LTI and persons in the field have given us about their perceptions of the program and its operation. They thus draw upon objective data and subjective experience and judgment.

Perhaps the most significant conclusion of this review is that parity in community involvement between the school and its community is a viable and effective possibility. It does not happen without certain prerequisites and there is a varying degree of success in the effort from one location to another. It is not altogether clear just what conditions are required for more or less successful programs at different sites, although there are some patterns in our information that seem to suggest what some of them might be.

Whatever the preconditions and the supplementary supports, the installation of Urban/Rural programs did restructure the relationship between the community and the school. Community perceptions of the school and of the possibility that community people could "influence" the system changed positively at sites where collaboration was effective. There is also some evidence of spill-over effects from the Urban/Rural sites into neighboring school districts. The program had a perceptible impact at its own sites and outside its initial boundaries.

The participation of community members had a definite effect on the nature of the training programs developed locally. It seems reasonable to conclude that programs with community involvement produce different educational decisions than those with little community input. The direction of difference is generally toward including more community-oriented and locally relevant material and experiences in the training sessions. It is also toward including community members in a larger number of the training activities of the district.

One concern about school-community collaboration is the possibility that administrative arrangements would be cumbersome and inefficient and would, in the long run, devolve to the familiar centralized pattern of

administrative control. This review of the Urban/Rural program, however, indicates that, at most of the sites, the School/Community Council has become a workable administrative unit. The School Development Team Manager can establish reasonably efficient relationships between the program and the school administration, and, in our view, the collaborative arrangements are practical and capable of long-term implementation.

There is informal evidence from interviews and comments about the program to suggest that community perceptions of the school were changed in a positive direction by the Urban/Rural project. In particular, a new sense of access to persons of influence in the school appears to characterize the program. Community people who had not experienced the school officials as approachable or responsive to community needs gained a new perception of the school faculty and principal. This came as a result of the greater opportunity by community persons for interaction with school personnel. The Urban/Rural program was also a vehicle through which school personnel could express their willingness to interact with citizens from the community. Although it is possible that the program may have changed some attitudes of school staff members, it is also true that the readiness of the school to interact with people from the community and to plan jointly is facilitated by appropriate administrative structure.

The interaction between the community and school across the 23 sites was, for the most part, without serious conflict. The apprehensions that are sometimes expressed by school administrators and faculty about the consequences of community "control" were, in most instances, unfounded. Participation by community residents has not resulted in disruption at any of the sites, and cooperation in support of the program by the local education authorities seems to have increased during the early phases of the program. It would appear from our informal evidence that the experience of working together has been rewarding for both school and community personnel at many of the sites.

In contrast to the access teachers have to educational and instructional innovations and to recent developments in educational thought, people in the community have few channels to development in community education and participation. The school-community exchange has tended

to be somewhat one-sided. At many sites, teachers received substantial training about the values and culture of the community and its relevance for their teaching. There was less training of the community about the realities of the school, the educational community in general, and ways in which community people can successfully relate to it.[1] The Urban/Rural program, although oriented toward innovation in teacher training, necessarily included efforts to develop the resources of the community in educational planning and participation. Teacher training is a reasonably well-developed field, at least in terms of professional experience, but community training is not. Training of community people to be effective collaborators in the educational enterprise has received little attention, and there has been little developed by way of materials, concepts, and procedures. The pattern of adult education familiar in middle-class neighborhoods, where citizens with college educations return to school for specific course work or form discussion groups, is virtually unknown in low-income communities. The success of the Urban/Rural program in developing community resources is thus of special importance. This review did not include a study of the various ways in which persons from the community have been given experience and have been helped to develop greater competence in educational participation, but such a study would be extremely worthwhile.

It seems likely that differences among sites can be partially explained in terms of how the program was interpreted to the LEA, the community, and the members of the School/Community Council. The initial orientation and training phase is exceedingly important in setting the tone of the program at the local site, although we cannot, with confidence, isolate the various factors that made for more or less community participation at the various sites. The information sites received was from several different sources; adaptations of the program to the local situation were sometimes slow to develop; and the requirements for participation, in some instances, ignored the local political history of

[1] A contribution to help make up this lack is a monograph by Ethel Lichtman, Educating Parents about Education: A Review of Some Issues, Methods, and Sources of Information, which was prepared as part of the Stanford LTI.

community participation. Although the program had great flexibility with respect to the kinds of training that might be provided, the initial phase of the program followed a relatively rigid format. Coordination between the Office of Education and LTI was not always smooth, the division of responsibility not well worked out; funding delays and changes in the program as defined by the Office of Education would alternately put time pressure on the SCC to produce documents (such as proposals) and impose delays in funding and approval of program implementation. Some of this, perhaps, cannot be avoided in a new program, but we mention it here to point out that program success and effectiveness are influenced by the type of orientation and start-up procedures used at the individual sites.

Communities can develop the competence and resources required by collaboration, but they must be given time to accumulate experience, and the degree of pre-program readiness of the community must be carefully assessed. The Urban/Rural program, with its emphasis upon community participation in all stages of planning, encountered a fundamental dilemma. On the one hand, the format gave community people parity in decision-making and implementation. On the other hand, it asked them, in some instances, to produce and perform in ways for which they had not developed adequate experience and competence. The operation of the program has demonstrated, in our view, that community people can participate effectively and wisely in educational decision-making and implementation. It has also demonstrated, we think, that some time and experience are required to allow people in the community to develop competence in these tasks. The personnel from the community and the personnel from the school thus began their joint endeavor at quite different places in terms of readiness to undertake the program. The implementation of the program did not take this into account. Time-lines and deadlines were not sufficiently flexible, and the imposition of a deadline seems, in some cases, to have forced the School/Community Council to go outside its own group to purchase the talents of proposal writers (sometimes at considerable cost). Given more time and training, the School/Community Council would have been able to develop its own resources to accomplish these tasks. This situation of "too much, too soon" was exaggerated by the guidelines,

which were intentionally flexible and gave little structure, at least in terms of specifications, and by few expectations about what might be regarded in the Office of Education as an acceptable proposal and implementation plan.

Programs at any particular site seem to have been more successful if they directly involved an administrative unit which had sufficient authority to protect and nurture the program. There seems to be a relationship between the success of the various local programs and the relative size of the administrative units in which they are incorporated. If the Urban/Rural program, for example, is one of several major programs in a large school district, it tends to have less impact and less community participation than a program which is the only major outside project. The prominence of the program seems to be related to the amount of support that is offered by the LEA. If it is one of several programs, or if it involves only a few grades, or one or two schools in a large district, the local educational authorities seem to be less well informed about the program and it commands insufficient attention, priority, and support. The program appears to be more successful when it meshes with exisiting units that were designed to carry out some functions supportive of the Urban/Rural program. In short, the salience and importance of the program to the local educational authorities is a crucial factor in its effectiveness.

The strength and success of the Urban/Rural program comes from the participation at the site and from the legitimacy that the program offers to school-community collaboration. Outside consultants and training packages were helpful, but they did not provide the essential strengths that were needed to energize the program. A history of innovation or experience with special projects on the part of the school seemed not to have been an important factor in determining Urban/Rural's success. The School/Community Councils often operated with minimal assistance from outside educational agencies, and the relative isolation of a program from centers of presumably sophisticated educational technology did not substantially affect success. Rural sites, for example, experienced little difficulty in obtaining effective assistance.

The experience of both community and school members of the program at sites where the program worked well seems to have been a reinforcing, rewarding experience. It is the competence and resources of people at the site and the fact that the program is a useful and rewarding experience that seem to offer the greatest promise for long-term collaboration of the sort represented by Urban/Rural.

Appendix A

Demographic Data on Participating Schools
Urban/Rural School Development Program
(June 1, 1972 to June 1, 1973)

Appendix A

Demographic Data on Participating Schools

Urban/Rural School Development Program (1972-1973)

Site	Schools	Grades	Pupil Population	Pupil Ethnicity	Staff Population	Staff Ethnicity
Akron, OH (U)	Thornton Jr. High	7-9	1,052	80% Bl 20 Cauc	59	15% Bl 85 Cauc
	West Jr. High	7-9	1,136	81 Bl 19 Cauc 01 Sp	56	14 Bl 86 Cauc
			T = 2,188		T = 115	
Bacon Co., GA (R)	Bacon County El.	1-5	1,089	83 Cauc 17 Bl	49	90 Cauc 10 Bl
	Bacon County Jr. High	6-8	410	84 Cauc 16 Bl	22	86 Cauc 14 Bl
	Bacon County Sr. High	9-12	684	85 Cauc 15 Bl	36	92 Cauc 08 Bl
			T = 2,183		T = 107	
Baltimore, MD (U)	Coppin El.	K-6	725	100 Bl	23	100 Bl
	Matthew Henson El.	K-6	998	100 Bl	28	67 Bl 33 Cauc
	Lemmel Jr. High	7-9	2,352	100 Bl	109	88 Bl 12 Cauc
	Douglass Sr. High	10-12	1,800	100 Bl	94	85 Bl 15 Cauc
			T = 5,875		T = 254	
Bayfield, WI (R)	Bayfield Joint School District No. 1	K-12	477	60 Cauc 40 AI	30	93 Cauc 07 AI
Clay Co., TN (R)	Maple Grove El.	1-8	45	100 Cauc	2	100 Cauc
	Celina El.	1-6	495	96 Cauc 04 Bl	21	91 Cauc 09 Bl
	Moss El.	1-8	125	100 Cauc	5	100 Cauc
	Union Hill El.	1-8	78	100 Cauc	3	100 Cauc
	Celina High	7-12	564	99 Cauc 01 Bl	25	100 Cauc
	Hermitage Spring	1-12	376	100 Cauc	17	100 Cauc
			T = 1,683		T = 73	

Legend: U=Urban; R=Rural; Bl=Black; Cauc=Caucasian; Sp=Spanish-surname; AI=American Indian; Or=Oriental; T=Total.

Appendix A (continued)

Site	Schools	Grades	Pupil Population	Pupil Ethnicity	Staff Population	Staff Ethnicity
Dayton, OH (U)	Louise Troy	K-3	586	99% Bl 01 Cauc	19	32% Bl 68 Cauc
	Miami Chapel	4-8	293	100 Bl	16	31 Bl 69 Cauc
	Irving	K-8	551	99 Bl 01 Cauc	35	46 Bl 54 Cauc
	Whittier	6-8	615	99 Bl 01 Cauc	29	52 Bl 48 Cauc
	Dunbar High	9-12	1,358	100 Bl	71	47 Bl 53 Cauc
			T = 3,403		T = 170	
East Chicago, IN (U)	James Whitcomb Riley El.	K-6	623	60 Sp 27 Bl 13 Cauc	35	49 Cauc 46 Bl 03 Or 03 Sp
Fort Gay, WV (R)	Thompson El.	K-6	181	100 Cauc	10	100 Cauc
	Fort Gay El.	K-6	425	100 Cauc	20	100 Cauc
	Fort Gay High	7-12	541	100 Cauc	30	100 Cauc
			T = 1,147		T = 60	
Galena, KS (R)	Liberty School	K-8	518	98 Cauc 02 Bl	20	95 Cauc 05 Bl
	Weir El.	K-8	202	99 Cauc 01 Bl	11	91 Cauc 09 Bl
	Greenlawn	K-6	90	100 Cauc	6	100 Cauc
			T = 810		T = 37	
Hays/Lodge Pole MT (R)	Hays Public	K-8	147	98 AI 02 Cauc	10	100 Cauc
	Lodge Pole Public	K-8	88	98 AI 02 Cauc	6	100 Cauc
			T = 235		T = 16	
Indianapolis, IN (U)	William Watson Wo Wollen School No. 45	K-6	897	98 Bl 02 Cauc	35	63 Cauc 37 Bl
Kankakee, IL (U)	Aroma Park	K-3	291	87 Cauc 13 Bl	12	67 Cauc 33 Bl
	Mark Twain	K-3	504	69 Cauc 31 Bl	18	89 Cauc 11 Bl
	Lincoln Middle	4-5	676	77 Cauc 23 Bl	32	91 Cauc 09 Bl
	East Upper	6-8	924	85 Cauc 15 Bl	53	89 Cauc 11 Bl
	Eastridge High	9-12	1,195	85 Cauc 15 Bl	70	90 Cauc 10 Bl
			T = 3,590		T = 185	

Legend: U-Urban; R=Rural; Bl=Black; Cauc=Caucasian; Sp=Spanish-surname; AI-American Indian; Or=Oriental; T=Total.

Appendix A (continued)

Site	School	Grades	Pupil Population	Pupil Ethnicity	Staff Population	Staff Ethnicity
Lackawanna, PA (R)	Greenfield El.	K-6	197	100% Cauc	7	100% Cauc
	Heart Lake El.	3-5	193	100 Cauc	6	100 Cauc
	Jermyn El.	K-6	259	100 Cauc	8	100 Cauc
	Jermyn High	10-12	307	100 Cauc	14	100 Cauc
	Mayfield Primary	K-3	120	100 Cauc	4	100 Cauc
	Mayfield El.	4-6	117	100 Cauc	3	100 Cauc
	Mayfield Jr. High	7-9	298	100 Cauc	12	100 Cauc
	Scott El.	K-2,6	236	100 Cauc	6	100 Cauc
	Scott High	7-12	377	100 Cauc	14	100 Cauc
			T = 2,104		T = 74	
Louisville, KY (U)	Washington Meyzeek	K-6 7-9	1,114	99 Bl 01 Cauc	50	65 Bl 35 Cauc
Neah Bay, WA (R)	Neah Bay	K-12	325	65 AI 33 Cauc 01 Sp 01 Or	20	95 Cauc 05 AI
Newark, NJ (U)	Thirteenth Avenue	K-8	2,245	94 Bl 05 Sp 01 Cauc	118	60 Bl 40 Cauc
New York, NY (U)	Community No. 54	K-6	1,932	60 Sp 38 Bl 02 Cauc	81	02 Sp 11 Bl 86 Cauc
	Community No. 134	K-6	1,168	55 Bl 43 Sp 02 Cauc	55	90 Cauc 09 Bl
	Community No. 136	7-9	1,604	50 Bl 48 Sp 02 Cauc	100	64 Cauc 34 Bl 02 Sp
			T = 4,704		T = 236	
San Antonio, TX (U)	H. K. Williams	K-6	862	93 Sp 06 Cauc 01 Bl	37	76 Sp 19 Cauc 05 Bl
San Luis, CO (R)	Centennial El.	K-6	387	99 Sp 01 Cauc	15	99 Sp 01 Cauc
	Centennial Jr. High	7-9	161	99 Sp 01 Cauc	8	99 Sp 01 Cauc
	Centennial Sr. High	10-12	154	99 Sp 01 Cauc	13	99 Sp 01 Cauc
			T = 702		T = 36	

Legend: U=Urban; R=Rural; Bl=Black; Cauc= Caucasian; Sp=Spanish-surname; AI=American Indian; Or=Oriental; T=Total.

Appendix A (concluded)

Site	Schools	Grades	Pupil Population	Pupil Ethnicity	Staff Population	Staff Ethnicity
Sodus, NY (R)	Primary	K-3	775	88% Cauc 12 Bl	35	100% Cauc
	Intermediate	4-6	600	80 Cauc 20 Bl	31	97 Cauc 03 Bl
	Jr.-Sr. High	7-12	1,027	82 Cauc 16 Bl 01 Sp 01 Or	69	98 Cauc 02 Bl
			T = 2,402		T = 135	
St. Louis, MO (U)	Vashon High	9-12	2,573	98 Bl 02 Cauc	88	78 Bl 22 Cauc
	Carver El.	K-8	591	83 Bl 17 Cauc	17	90 Bl 10 Cauc
	Dunbar El.	K-8	825	100 Bl	23	85 Bl 15 Cauc
			T = 3,989		T = 128	
Trenton, NJ (U)	Jefferson	K-6	856	94 Bl 04 Sp 02 Cauc	34	47 Bl 47 Cauc 06 Sp
	Junior No. 1	7-9	1,021	93 Bl 03 Sp 04 Cauc	63	57 Bl 41 Cauc 02 Sp
			T = 1,877		T = 97	
Wise County, VA (R)	East Stone Gap	1-7	517	99 Cauc 01 Bl	31	100 Cauc
	Big Stone Gap	1-7	732	92 Cauc 08 Bl	38	92 Cauc 08 Bl
	Appalachia El.	1-7	731	96 Cauc 04 Bl	34	94 Cauc 06 Bl
			T = 1,980		T = 103	

Legend: U=Urban; R=Rural; Bl=Black; Cauc=Caucasian; Sp=Spanish-surname; AI=American Indian; Or=Oriental; T=Total.

Appendix B

Urban/Rural Site Survey Questionnaires

U/R Site Survey (Site)_____SCC - Membership Profile

Name_____ Ethnic/Racial Background_____ Sex_____

Address_____ Occupation_____

Resident of area served by Urban/Rural Schools? Yes____ No____ Children in U/R School? Yes____ No____

Education: Not H.S. Grad. ____; H.S. Grad. ____; B.A. or M.A. ____; PhD, M.D. or other advanced degree _____

SCC membership dates: (mo. & yr.) From_____ To_____ Present _____

SCC offices held: Title_____ From_____ To_____

Representing: (please check only one of the following catagories)

School: Community_____ Student_____

Administrator _____

Teacher _____

Para-Professional _____

Non-Professional _____

Please circle the grade you were in when you first joined the SCC:

5 6 7 8 9
10 11 12

Prior participatory experience: (please list organizations in which you have been or are now an active member together with any leadership positions held)

Educational Organizations:

Federal Education Programs:

Community Action Organizations:

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U/R Site Survey (Site)_____SCC - Staff Profile

Name_____ Ethnic/Racial Background_____ Sex_____

Address_____ Job Title_____

Resident of area served by U/R schools prior to SCC staff position? Yes_____ No _____

Dates employed: (month & year) From:_____ To_____. Salary $_____/_____

Full Time _____ Part Time (please indicate percentage) _____

Education: Not H.S. Grad. _____; H.S. Grad. _____; B.A. or M.A. _____; PhD or other advanced degree _____

Job description:

_____

_____

_____

_____

Experience: (please give a brief statement of prior employment and/or organizational affiliation)

_____

_____

_____

_____

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U/R Site Survey (Site)_____ Training Sessions

Training Activity_____

Date (s)_____ Location: On-Site_____ Off-Site_____

Purpose: U/R program orientation_____; Trip_____; Leadership/Management Training_____; School Community Relations_____; Behavioral teaching skills_____*; Academic teaching skills_____*.

Participants (number): Teaching Staff_____; other School Staff_____; SCC members_____; SCC staff_____; Community members_____. Paid to attend? Yes___No____.

Initiated by: SCC____; SDTM____; Supt____; School staff____; University____; Consultant____; other_ _.

Designed by: SCC____; SDTM____; Supt____; School staff____; University____; Consultant____; other____.

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*Indicate source of technical/training assistance:

_____

*Contract? Yes____No____. Estimated total cost $_____. Sign-off by SCC? Yes____No____.

*SCC and/or SDTM involvement in program design was slight_____; moderate_____; extensive_____.

*Academic Credit? Yes_____No_____.

*Brief format description:_____

_____

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Appendix C

Personal Profiles, School/Community Council Chairpersons

Urban/Rural School Development Program, September 1973

Appendix C

Personal Profiles, School/Community Council Chairpersons
Urban/Rural School Development Program, September 1973

Site	Name	Tenure	Ethnicity	Representation[a]	Residence[b]	Parent[c]	Education[d]	Occupation
Akron	Laurita Sharpp	6/71-11/72	Black	S-T	No	No	BA	Librarian
	Thomas Thomas	11/72-6/73	Caucasian	S-T	No	No	BA	Teacher
Bacon County	R.T. Johnson	6/71-	Caucasian	S-A	Yes	Yes	MA	Principal/ El. School
Baltimore	Dorothy Evans	9/72-8/73	Black	S-T	Yes	No	MA	School Counselor
Bayfield	Preston Gee	7/71-	Caucasian	C	Yes	Yes	BA	Psychiatric Social Worker
Clay County	John Teeples	6/71-5/72	Caucasian	S-A	Yes	Yes	BA	School Administrator
	John Holoway	6/72-	Caucasian	C	Yes	No	BA	Minister
Dayton	Fred Hairston	6/71-6/73	Black	C	Yes	Yes	HS	Computer Progr.
	Anthony Steele	6/73-	Black	C	Yes	Yes	HS	Physical Testing - Inland Steel
East Chicago	Louis Vasquez	11/71-1/72	Mexican American	C	Yes	No	HS	Steel-worker
	Roberto Chavez	1/72-9/72	Mexican American	C	Yes	No	HS	Steel-worker
	Judith Zajdel	9/72-9/73	Caucasian	S-T	No	No	BA	Teacher
Fort Gay	Larry Pelfry	5/71-	Caucasian	C	Yes	Yes	BA	Electrician
Galena	Larry Reynolds	7/71-9/72	Caucasian	S-A	Yes	No	BA	School Principal
	Robert L. Scott	9/72-	Caucasian	C	Yes	Yes	HS	Maintenance Supry.
Hays/Lodge Pole	Betty Campbell	6/71-8/71	Caucasian	S-T	Yes	No	BA	Teacher
	John Allen	8/71-7/72	American Indian	C	Yes	No	NHS	Rancher
	Granville Hawley	7/72-10/72	American Indian	C	Yes	Yes	HS	Rancher
	Ron Blake	10/72-3/73	Caucasian	S-T	Yes	No	BA	Teacher/ Administrator
	Norma Jean King	3/73-	American Indian	S-PP	Yes	Yes	HS	Home/ School Coord.

[a] Refers to group represented on Council. S-A=School, Administrator; S-T=School, Teacher; S-PP=School, Paraprofessional; C-Community.
[b] Indicates whether or not chairperson is resident of Urban/Rural site.
[c] Indicates whether or not chairperson is the parent of a student attending an Urban/Rural School.
[d] NHS-not high school graduate; HS=high school graduate; Pf=professional degree.

Appendix C (continued)

Site	Name	Tenure	Ethnicity	Representation[a]	Residence[b]	Parent[c]	Education[d]	Occupation
Indianapolis	Olivia J. McGee	6/71-	Black	S-T	No	No	BA	Teacher
Kankakee	Milton Shapiro	6/71-1/72	Caucasian	C	Yes	Yes	HS	Real Estate Broker
	Melvin Jarvis	1/72-6/73	Caucasian	C	Yes	Yes	BA	Accountant
	Eddie Raybon	6/73-	Black	S-T	No	No	BA	Teacher
Lackawanna	Walter S. Bloes	7/71-1/72	Caucasian	C	Yes	Yes	Pf	Medical Doctor
	Violet Navarro	1/72-	Caucasian	S-T	Yes	Yes	BA	Teacher
Louisville	Mary Ford	5/71-8/72	Black	C	Yes	Yes	HS	Recreational Therapist
	A.P. King	8/72-	Black	C	No	No	NHS	Minister
Neah Bay	Cliff Houpt	5/71-9/71	Caucasian	C	Yes	Yes	HS	Tribal Council Employee
	Lloyd Coltax	9/71-1/72	American Indian	C	Yes	No	HS	Tribal Council Employee
	David Parker	1/72-9/72	American Indian	C	Yes	Yes	HS	Tribal Police
	Leonard Denny	9/72-3/73	Caucasian	C	Yes	Yes	HS	USAF-Civil Service
	Dell Greene	3/73-	American Indian	C	Yes	Yes	HS	Carpenter
Newark	Martha Walton	10/71-8/72	Black	S-PP	Yes	Yes	HS	Para-professional
	Phillip Gibbs	9/72-	Black	C	Yes	Yes	HS	Machinist
New York	James Crawford	10/71-10/72	Black	S-T	No	No	BA	Guidance Counselor
	Jacques Bonhomme	10/72-5/73	Haitian	S-T	No	No	BA	Teacher
	Kenneth Drummond	5/73-	Black	C	Yes	No	HS	Director, Morrisonia Corp.
San Antonio	Elvira Martinez	6/71-9/72	Mexican American	C	Yes	Yes	HS	Housewife
	Josephine Teniente	9/72-	Mexican American	C	Yes	Yes	NHS	Housewife
San Luis	Tom J. Valdez	12/71-	Spanish American	C	Yes	Yes	HS	Gas Station Operator
Sodus	Charles Costello	6/71-4/72	Caucasian	C	Yes	Yes	HS	County Exec. Div. USDA
	Dan C. Davis	8/72-7/73	Caucasian	C	Yes	Yes	MBA	Sales Admin.
	Bernard Gajewski	8/73-	Caucasian	C	Yes	Yes	BA	Elec. Engineer

[a]Refers to group represented on Council. S-A=School, Administrator; S-T=School, Teacher; S-PP=School, Paraprofessional; C=Community.

[b]Indicates whether or not chairperson is resident of Urban/Rural site.

[c]Indicates whether or not chairperson is the parent of a student attending an Urban/Rural School.

[d]NHS=not high school graduate; HS=high school graduate; Pf=professional degree.

Appendix C (concluded)

Site	Name	Tenure	Ethnicity	Representation[a]	Residence[b]	Parent[c]	Education[d]	Occupation
St. Louis	Freddie Harris	3/72-5/73	Black	C	Yes	No	HS	Community Organizer
	William Jackson	6/73-	Black	C	Yes	Yes	HS	Postal Employee
Trenton	Bobbie Fitzerald	11/71-	Black	C	Yes	No	HS	Liquor Salesman
Wise County	Henry Lane, Jr.	6/71-6/72 6/73-	Caucasian	C	Yes	Yes	HS	Auditor
	E. H. Insko	6/72-6/73	Caucasian	C	Yes	No	BA	Minister

[a]Refers to group represented on Council. S-A=School, Administrator; S-T=School, Teacher; S-PP=School, Paraprofessional; C=Community.
[b]Indicates whether or not chairperson is resident of Urban/Rural Site.
[c]Indicates whether or not chairperson is the parent of a student attending an Urban/Rural School.
[d]NHS=not high school graduate; HS=high school graduate; Pf=professional degree.

Appendix D

Personal Profiles, School Development Team Managers

Urban/Rural School Development Program, September 1973

Appendix D

Personal Profiles, School Development Team Managers
Urban/Rural School Development Program, September 1973

Site	Name	Tenure	Ethnicity	Residency[a]	Education[b]	Previous Experience
Akron	John A. Banks	2/72-	Black	No	BA	Teacher and School Community Coordinator
Bacon County	Thomas J. Lewis	6/71-6/72	Caucasian	Yes	MA	Teacher/Federal Programs Coord.
	James E. Deen	6/72-	Black	Yes	MS	Teacher/Administrator
Baltimore	Thelma Cox	2/72-6/73	Black	No	BA	Teacher - Science and English
	Dorothy Evans	8/73-	Black	Yes	BA	Teacher
Bayfield	Thomas Frizzell	5/72-	Caucasian	No	BA	Teacher/Administrator
Clay County	Joe Eads	9/71-8/72	Caucasian	Yes	BA	Teacher
	Betty Teeples	9/73-	Caucasian	Yes	MA	Teacher
Dayton	Mildred Patterson	1/72-	Black	Yes	MA	Teacher
East Chicago	Oscar Vela	4/72-	Mexican American	Yes	BA	Human Relations Commission and Community Coord.
Fort Gay	Michael Sullivan	3/72-	Caucasian	No	BA	Teacher and Federal Funding Coord.
Galena	Wayne Atherton	9/71-8/73	Caucasian	No	MA	Teacher and School Administrator
Hays/Lodge Pole	Harry Turner	11/72-9/73	Caucasian	No	BA	Teacher
Indianapolis	Betty McCarty	2/72-	Caucasian	No	BA	Teacher/Admin.
Kankakee	Willie Davis	1/72-	Black	Yes	BA	Teacher-Science Basketball Coach
Lackawanna	Millard Roberts	3/72-	Caucasian	No	PhD	Administrator
Louisville	Ernest Edwards	3/72-	Black	No	BA	Social Work and Community Poverty Program
Neah Bay	Lloyd Colfax	3/72-	Makah	Yes	HS Grad.	Employment Counselor
Newark	Glen Marie Brickus	2/72-	Black	Yes	HS Grad.	Office Work

[a]Indicates whether or not SDTM was Urban/Rural site resident prior to being employed.
[b]HS=high school graduate.

Appendix D (concluded)

Site	Name	Tenure	Ethnicity	Residency[a]	Education[b]	Previous Experience
New York	Mamie Thompson	2/72-	Black	No	MA	Teacher/Administrator
San Antonio	Wilfrido Garza	6/73-	Mexican American	No	BA	Teacher/Administrator
	A.J. Castillo	10/71-10/72	Mexican American	Yes	BA	Teacher and Community Poverty Program
San Luis	Maclovio Gallegos	12/71-6/74	Spanish-surname	Yes	BA	Teacher-High School English
Sodus	Homer Nahabetian	3/72-	Caucasian	No	PhD	Teacher
St. Louis	William Busch, Jr.	8/71-	Black	No	BA	Teacher/Administrator Community Coordinator
Trenton	Calvin A. Taylor	4/72-	Black	No	BS	Teacher/Administrator
Wise County	Larry C. Cornett	10/71-	Caucasian	Yes	BA	Teacher

[a]Indicates whether or not SDTM was Urban/Rural site resident prior to being employed.
[b]HS=high school graduate.

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